

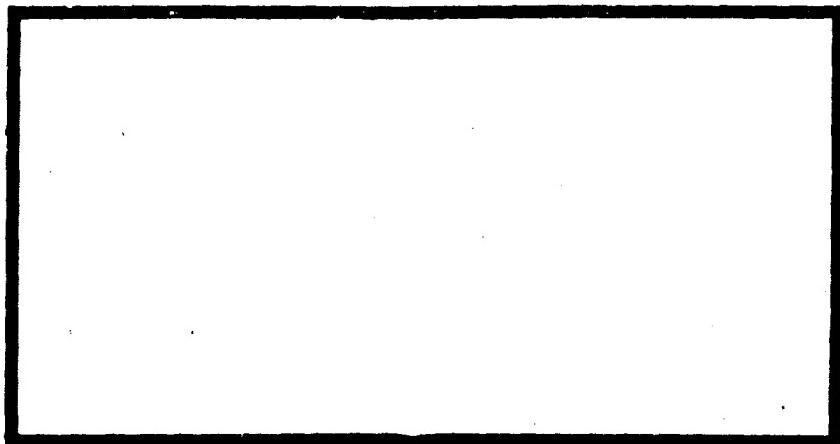
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ADAPTIVE LASER POINTING  
AND  
TRACKING PROBLEM

THESIS

AFIT/GEO/EE/80D-12      James Singletary Jr.  
                              1st Lt                   USAF

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6 ADAPTIVE LASER POINTING  
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C Master's THESIS

Presented to the Faculty of the School of Engineering  
of the Air Force Institute of Technology

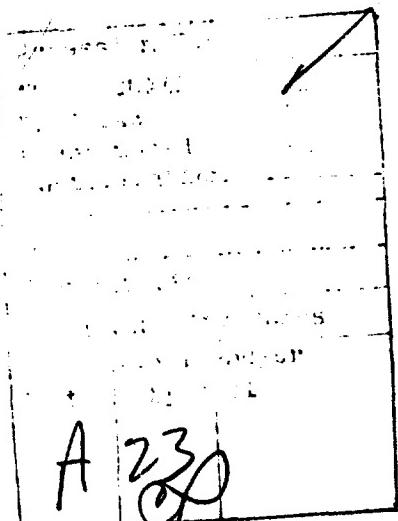
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by  
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Graduate Electro-Optics

11 December 1980



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Preface

This report is the third in a series of research projects devoted to the development of an extended Kalman filter algorithm for use in a ground based laser system located at Kirtland AFB, New Mexico.

Much thanks goes to my thesis advisor, Dr. Maybeck, for his patience, consideration, and above all expert advice given throughout this project. Dr. Kabrinsky deserves additional thanks for his assistance in the pattern recognition area. Finally, without the help of my experienced typist, Ms. Cheryl Nicol, this report would not have been completed.

James Singletary Jr.

Contents

	Page
Preface . . . . .	ii
List of Figures . . . . .	iv
List of Tables . . . . .	vi
List of Symbols . . . . .	vii
Abstract . . . . .	ix
I. Introduction . . . . .	1
Background . . . . .	1
Problem Overview . . . . .	3
Plan of Attack . . . . .	7
II. Models and Data Processing Fundamentals . . . . .	9
Karhunen-Loëve Transformation . . . . .	9
Fourier Transform . . . . .	13
Averaging . . . . .	19
Spatial Noise . . . . .	20
Relationship Between Truth Model and Extended Kalman Filter . . . . .	25
Truth Model . . . . .	26
Extended Kalman Filter . . . . .	31
Measurement Update . . . . .	36
III. Performance Analysis . . . . .	39
IV. Conclusions and Recommendations . . . . .	50
Bibliography . . . . .	52
Appendix A: Numerical Approximations . . . . .	54
Appendix B: Coordinate System for 8 x 8 Input Array . . . . .	57
Appendix C: Input Patterns . . . . .	58
Appendix D: Computer Software . . . . .	61
Vita . . . . .	98

List of Figures

Figure		Page
1	Data Processing Scheme . . . . .	5
2a	Finite Area A x B . . . . .	16
2b	Sequence Numbers . . . . .	16
3	FOURT Format . . . . .	17
4	Rearranged Format . . . . .	17
5	Pixel Numbering Scheme . . . . .	21
6	First and Second Nearest Correlation Coefficients . . .	23
7	Results of Shift Routine . . . . .	42
8	No Noise $\sigma = 1/4$ pixel $\alpha = 0.1$ . . . . .	43
9A	1st Run $\sigma = 1/4$ pixel S/N = 10 $\alpha = 0.1$ . . . . .	44
9B	50th Run $\sigma = 1/4$ pixel S/N = 10 $\alpha = 0.1$ . . . . .	44
10A	1st Run $\sigma = 1/4$ pixel S/N = 20 $\alpha = 0.1$ . . . . .	45
10B	50th Run $\sigma = 1/4$ pixel S/N = 20 $\alpha = 0.1$ . . . . .	45
11	No Noise IMAX = 20 $\sigma = 3$ pixels . . . . .	46
12A	1st Run $\sigma = 3$ pixels S/N = 10 $\alpha = 0.1$ . . . . .	47
12B	50th Run $\sigma = 3$ pixels S/N = 10 $\alpha = 0.1$ . . . . .	47
13A	1st Run $\sigma = 3$ pixels S/N = 20 $\alpha = 0.1$ . . . . .	48
13B	50th Run $\sigma = 3$ pixels S/N = 20 $\alpha = 0.1$ . . . . .	48
14	Pixel Sampling Scheme . . . . .	55
15	Coordinate System for Input Array . . . . .	57
16a	40 x 40 Constant Intensity . . . . .	59
16b	3 Constant Height Cylinders . . . . .	59
16c	3 Gaussian Profiles . . . . .	59
17a	Discrete 40 x 40 Constant Intensity . . . . .	60

List of Figures

Figure	Page
17b Discrete 3 Constant Height Cylinders . . . . .	60
17c Discrete 3 Gaussian Profiles . . . . .	60

### List of Tables

Table		Page
1	Divergence Analysis . . . . .	49

List of Symbols

Symbol		Page
$\hat{x}(t_i^+)$	state estimate after incorporation of measurement . . . . .	3
$\hat{x}(t_i^-)$	propagated state estimate vector before incorporation of measurement . . . . .	3
$K(t_i)$	Kalman Filter Gain . . . . .	3
$z(t_i)$	actual measurement vector . . . . .	3
$h(\hat{x}(t_i), t_i)$	non-linear h function . . . . .	3
$R(x, \alpha; y, \beta)$	spatial autocorrelation kernel . . . . .	9
$\phi_i(\alpha, \beta)$	eigenfunctions . . . . .	9
$\lambda_i$	eigenvalues . . . . .	9
$S(w_x, w_y)$	power density spectrum . . . . .	11
$\Phi(jw_x, jw_y)$	Fourier Transform of $\phi_i(\alpha, \beta)$ . . . . .	11
T	Fourier Transform . . . . .	12
$f_x, f_y$	spatial frequencies . . . . .	13
$x, y$	spatial variables . . . . .	13
m, n	sequence numbers in space domain . . . . .	14
k, l	sequence numbers in spatial frequency domain . . . . .	14
M, N	spatial area covered by the sequence numbers . . . . .	14
$\hat{y}(t)$	most recent averaged value . . . . .	19
y(t)	most recent piece of data . . . . .	19
$\hat{y}(t-1)$	previous averaged value . . . . .	19
$\alpha$	exponential smoothing constant . . . . .	19
$C$	matrix of correlation coefficients . . . . .	23
$R$	correlation matrix . . . . .	24

List of Symbols

Symbol		Page
$\underline{v}(t_i)$	measurement noise vector . . . . .	24
$\underline{w}(t_i)$	white noise Gaussian vector . . . . .	24
$\lambda$	correlation time . . . . .	27
$\underline{F}_T$	truth model plant matrix . . . . .	28
$\underline{G}_T$	truth model input matrix . . . . .	28
$\Phi(t, t_i)$	state transition matrix . . . . .	30
$P(t^+)$	conditional state covariance matrix from measurement update . . . . .	34
$P(t_{i+1}^-)$	propagated conditional state covariance matrix .	34
$\underline{\Omega}_F$	noise covariance matrix . . . . .	33
$\underline{H}(t_i)$	linear h function . . . . .	36

10 to the -8th power)

Abstract

Although a number of the major objectives that were established at the outset of this project were not met, a number of milestones were realized. The digital implementation of a negating phase shift that operates perfectly under ideal conditions was a major accomplishment. The establishment of a zero level of ~~10<sup>-8</sup>~~ was also significant. The incorporation of the exponential smoothing technique to minimize the effect of measurement noise was important since it uncovered a possible connection between the size of the target image and its performance throughout the pattern recognition process. However, the major obstacle that surface during the execution of this project was a filter divergence problem. It has been proposed that this problem can be solved by implementing the Fourier transform derivative property instead of the forward-backward difference method to compute the spatial derivative of the non-linear h function.

## I Introduction

### Background

The application of laser technology to everyday life is growing in importance as each year passes. In areas from medicine to industry to military applications, laser technology, although in its embryonic stage, has gained a foothold and is destined to have a major impact on the future. For instance, in the industrial area, laser drilling has significantly improved the machining qualities resulting in smoother cuts, reduced tool force, and increased speed and accuracy (1:225-31). In the medical area, the application of lasers in ophthalmology is promising. For example, the use of lasers to repair retinal tears and holes has been quite successful (2:360-7). For military applications, the ability to deposit large amounts of laser energy onto targets is a major research effort. One in a number of major obstacles before realizing this application deals with the precision tracking of a target and the subsequent pointing of the laser beam. This thesis is one in a series of research efforts devoted to solving this problem.

Traditionally, correlation algorithms have been employed to provide pointing and tracking information to a system. This correlation tracker stores a set of predetermined or previous real-time data target images in memory, compares these images with the images from its sensors. In the process of performing the mathematical calculations to characterize the differences between the stored and actual images, the appropriate commands are sent to the tracker to minimize the offset between the two (3:30-8). However, two major disadvantages of the correlation algorithm are its susceptibility to noise and absence of sensitivity to target

dynamics (3:31). To combat these drawbacks, the use of an extended Kalman Filter algorithm in place of the correlation tracker is being explored.

The Kalman Filter is a computer algorithm which processes noise-corrupted measurements and provides a reasonably accurate estimate of the state variables of interest (4:3). The actual mathematical details of the Kalman Filter are contained in Chapter 2 under the subtitle Extended Kalman Filter.

As mentioned earlier, this project is one in a series of research efforts. To be more precise, this project is the follow-on to two other projects. The first of these, entitled "An Extended Kalman Filter For Use in a Shared Aperture Medium Range Tracker" by Daniel E. Mercier, dealt with a very benign distant point target which could be analytically expressed as a two-dimensional gaussian intensity profile of circular contours (3:6-7). This intensity profile and all other profiles developed for this research effort are assumed to be scanned by a Forward-Looking Infrared (FLIR) sensor. This sensor horizontally and vertically scans the system field of view (FOV) to provide an 8 x 8 array of discrete values. These discrete values represent the average intensity of that portion of the image which lay across the appropriate detector (3:4-5).

Using some of the results of Mercier's Thesis, the second project, entitled "An Adaptive Distributed Measurement Extended Kalman Filter For a Short Range Tracker" by Robert L. Jensen and Douglas A. Harnly, dealt with more dynamic targets at closer ranges but still assumed that the target intensity pattern could be expressed analytically. However, Jensen and Harnly's thesis did make provisions to adaptively change the

shape of unimodal intensity patterns (5:77). Still, for actual hardware implementation, a priori knowledge of the analytic form of the intensity often cannot be assumed. Instead, on-line numerical techniques will have to be exploited to provide the necessary information to the Kalman Filter. The development of these techniques and their subsequent interface with the Kalman Filter is the basis for this project.

#### Problem Overview

The numerical techniques mentioned toward the end of the previous section include the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT), the shift theorem of Fourier Transform, the exponential smoothing technique, and the forward-backward difference method. These techniques are discussed in more detail in Chapter 2 and Appendix A. However, all involve the manipulation of intensity measurements provided by the FLIR sensor. The end result of these computations is to provide information to the Kalman Filter about the intensity pattern shape. This information takes the form of certain components of the measurement update equation. A detailed description of the measurement update equation is contained in Chapter 2 under the subtitle Measurement Update. However, the general form of this equation is

$$\hat{x}(t_i^+) = \hat{x}(t_i^-) + K(t_i) (z(t_i) - h(\hat{x}(t_i^-))t_i) \quad (1)$$

where  $\hat{x}(t_i^+)$  = state estimate vector after incorporation of measurement

$\hat{x}(t_i^-)$  = propagated state estimate vector before incorporation of measurement

$K(t_i)$  = Kalman Filter Gain

$z(t_i)$  = actual measurement vector

$\underline{h}(\hat{x}(t_i^-) t_i^-)$ ) = non-linear function of intensity measurement at time  $t_i$ , as a function of the true state estimate

In devising this project, it was decided that under ideal conditions, the Kalman Filter would provide state estimates which would center the target images from one sample period to another. This desirability of producing centered images is motivated by the simplicity it produces in the Kalman Filter equations. If the center images correspond to state estimates equal to zero, the resulting measurement equations become

$$\hat{x}(t_i^-) = \underline{0} \quad (2)$$

$$\hat{x}(t_i^+) = \underline{0} + \underline{K}(t_i) (z(t_i) - \underline{h}(0_1 t_i)) \quad (3)$$

where

$\underline{h}(0_1 t_i)$  = centered non-linear  $h$  function

The generation of  $\underline{h}(0_1 t_i)$  involves the use of the FFT, shifting theorem, and exponential smoothing techniques mentioned earlier. The details of how these techniques are utilized will be discussed later however, buried within the Kalman Filter gain ( $\underline{K}(t_i)$ ) is the spatial derivative of the centered non-linear  $h$  function (see Chapter 2, Equation 56). This spatial derivative is generated using the forward-backward difference method discussed in Appendix A.

The flow of the data processing scheme is shown in Figure 1. In essence, there are two parallel data processing paths for the intensity measurements. The first path involves taking the  $8 \times 8$  array of intensity measurements and arranging it by rows into a  $64 \times 1$  measurement vector. This vector is then provided, as a measurement  $\underline{z}(t_i)$ , to the extended Kalman Filter which in turn provides state estimates that are used in the second path to provide centered measurement functions. This

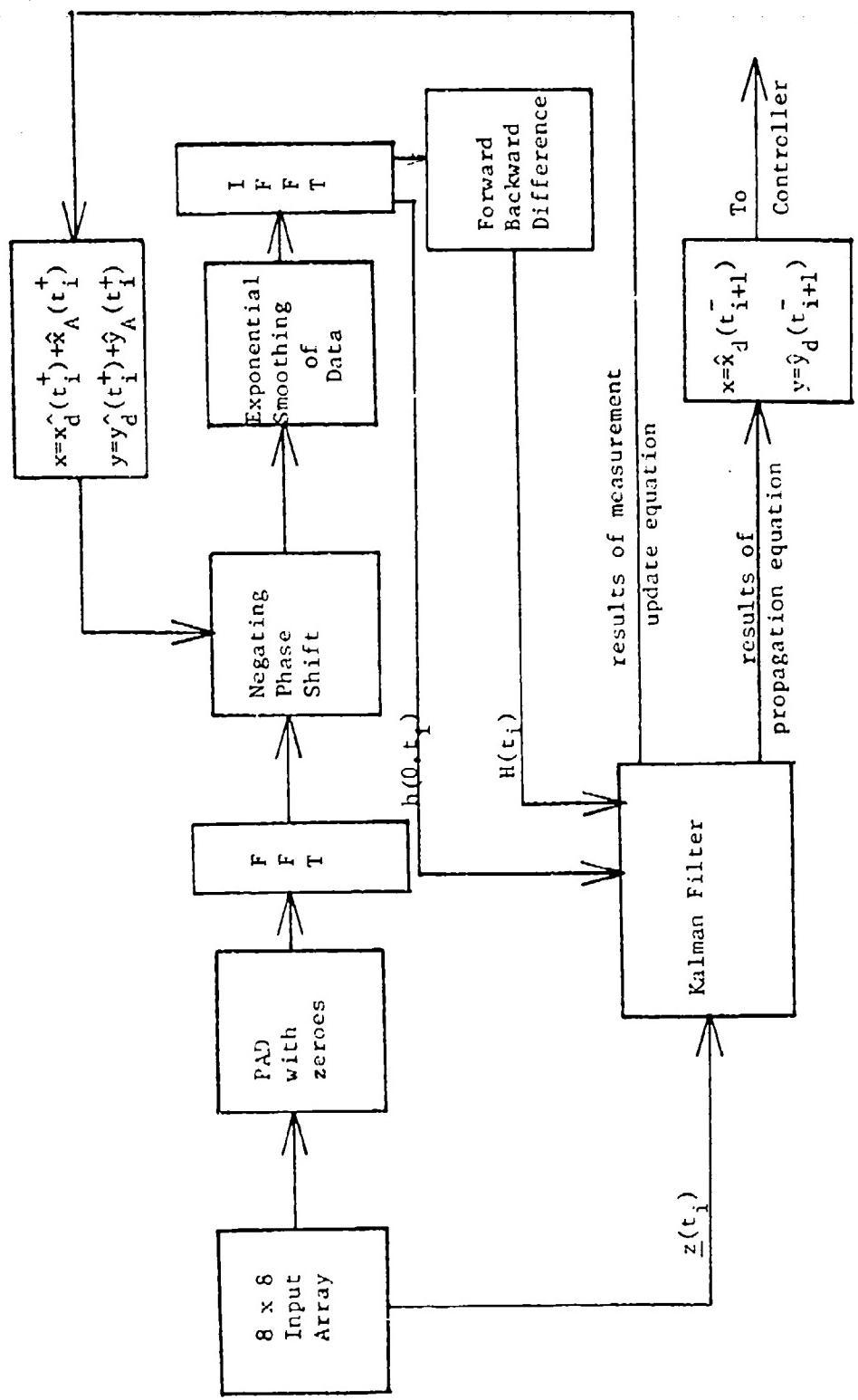


Figure 1. Data Processing Scheme

second path represents the main thrust of this thesis. Its purpose is to provide the centered non-linear and linear measurement functions mentioned earlier. To accomplish this, the shifting theorem of Fourier Transforms is exploited. In essence, the translation of an intensity pattern in the space domain can be negated by multiplying its Fourier Transform by the complex conjugate of the resulting linear phase shift (see Chapter 2, Fourier Transform). The source of the image translation about the FLIR array can be traced to two effects: the actual target dynamics and atmospheric jitter. An estimate of these effects are available from the Kalman Filter measurement update equations (see Chapter 2, Extended Kalman Filter). In turn, these best estimates are used in the argument of the complex conjugate of the linear phase shift to provide centered measurement functions. In addition, before the inverse Fourier Transform is taken, this centered pattern is averaged, using the exponential smoothing technique, with previous centered Fourier Transformed patterns to minimize the effect of measurement noise (see Chapter 2, Averaging). Once the inverse Fourier Transform is taken, the spatial derivative is then taken using the forward-backward difference approximation discussed in Appendix A to provide the centered linearized H function used in the calculation of the Kalman Filter Gain.

The sequential processing along the second path shown in Figure 1 together with its connection to the first path is an important fact. A copy of the  $8 \times 8$  array of data is first padded with zeroes to alleviate problems in using the FFT (see Chapter 2, Fourier Transform). Next, the Fourier Transform of the two-dimensional array of data is taken. Before the negating phase shift is applied to this Fourier Transform, the processing of the measurement vector along the first path has to be

completed, since the resulting state estimates from the measurement update equation are used in the linear phase shift in the second data processing path. After applying the negating linear phase shift, this centered Fourier Transform is averaged with past centered Fourier Transforms to minimize the effect of noise. Next, the inverse Fourier Transform is taken which, theoretically, results in a centered pattern with noise effects substantially reduced. The zeroes that were initially added to the input array are stripped away with the remaining  $8 \times 8$  data array representing the non-linear  $h$  function. In addition, using the numerical approximation discussed in Appendix A, the linearized  $H$  function is generated from this non-linear  $h$  function and both functions are used by the Kalman Filter for processing of the next measurement that becomes available.

An additional process that occurs along the first path is the propagation of the state estimate vector to the next sample time. This process provides the best prediction of where the target will be located just before the next measurement update is taken. Therefore, this information could be fed to a controller so as to minimize the perturbations of the image about the center of the FOV.

#### Plan of Attack

The plan of attack presented here provides a general flow of what will later be examined in greater detail in the performance analysis section. The verification of a pattern recognition algorithm along with its interface with the Extended Kalman Filter represents the basic premise upon which this thesis project was developed.

The verification of the pattern recognition algorithm is composed

of several different parts. These parts include verifying the FFT algorithm, verifying the ability to negate the translational effects in the space domain given perfect phase shift information to apply in the spatial frequency domain, and verifying the exponential smoothing technique as a means to minimize the effect of noise corruption on the measurement information.

The Extended Kalman Filter section involves measuring the impact of the non-linear and linearized h functions developed in the pattern recognition section on the performance of the Kalman Filter as compared to being given correct h functions. Also implicit in this verification is another comparison involving the use of state estimates from the Kalman Filter, instead of providing artificial knowledge of the true pattern offset, to provide the shift information needed in the pattern recognition section to provide centered patterns used to generate the h functions mentioned earlier (see Problem Overview).

## II Models and Data Processing Fundamentals

### Karhunen-Loëve Transformation

In the area of pattern recognition, it is highly desirable to determine the optimal set of eigenfunctions and their corresponding eigenvalues to represent two-dimensional intensity patterns. This representation can be determined with the orthogonal Karhunen-Loëve transformation

$$\int_{y-x}^y \int_x^x R(x, \alpha; y, \beta) \phi_i(\alpha, \beta) d\alpha d\beta = \lambda_i \phi_i(\alpha, \beta) \quad (4)$$

where  $R(x, \alpha; y, \beta)$  = spatial autocorrelation kernel

$\phi_i(\alpha, \beta)$  = eigenfunctions

$\lambda_i$  = eigenvalues

Based on properties specified through the spatial autocorrelation kernel, the entire information of an image is preserved by the given set of eigenvalues and eigenfunctions (6:6). Furthermore, since the low order terms normally provide the maximum sensitivity to target motion, the higher order terms of this spatial model decomposition can be neglected with little degradation in the quality of the resultant image (6:6).

As mentioned earlier, the key to finding the optimal set of functions is to know the spatial autocorrelation kernel. For intensity patterns represented by a two-dimensional discrete array of values, the correlation kernel is represented as a correlation matrix of dimension  $N^2 \times N^2$  with  $N$  being the dimension of the square input matrix (6:6). The generation of this correlation matrix is a major drawback in using the Karhunen-Loëve transformation. However, if this matrix can be assumed or determined, the transformation matrix ( $A$ ) which diagonalizes

the correlation matrix ( $R$ ) can be evaluated by:

$$A^T R A = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ & & \lambda_{N^2} \end{bmatrix} \quad (5)$$

where  $\lambda_i$ 's represents the eigenvalues in decreasing order of magnitude ( $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_{N^2}$ ) (6:6). Since the transformation matrix ( $A$ ) is developed from orthogonal eigenvectors of the correlation matrix, the transformation matrix is orthogonal. Thus, the forward and reverse Karhunen-Loëve transformations that will preserve the quality of the image are

forward direction:  $(F) = (f) (A)$

reverse direction:  $(f) = (F) (A)^T$

where  $(f)$  = image vector

$(F)$  = resultant image vector in the transform domain

$(A)$  = transformation matrix (6:7)

Once again, if the entire group of eigenvalues and eigenvectors were retained, the total quality of the image would be preserved. But, if only  $m$  of the first  $N^2$  eigenvalues were retained, the resultant mean square error (MSE) between the reconstructed image and the initial image would be the sum of the eigenvalues not included in the transformation.

$$MSE = \sum_{i=m+1}^{N^2} \lambda_i \quad (6:7)$$

As discussed in the article "Image Processing by Computer" by Guy Hanuise, from which the Karhunen-Loëve transformation argument has been developed, this transformation does possess some major disadvantages. The most significant drawbacks center around the generation of the correlation matrix. As the size of the square image matrix ( $N \times N$ )

grows, the correlation matrix grows as  $N^2$  (i.e.  $N^2 \times N^2$ ). Thus, with large image quantization levels, serious data processing problems arise (6:7). Along the same lines, the exact calculation of the correlation matrix is very difficult to perform. As a result, more common orthogonal transformations such as the Fourier transform are used in signal processing. Implicit in the use of the Fourier transform are the assumptions of spatial stationarity of the autocorrelation kernel and a space domain infinite in extent. Referring back to equation 4, in applying the assumption of spatial stationary, and a domain of infinite extent, the Karhunen-Loëve transformation equation becomes

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(x-\alpha, y-\beta) \phi_i(\alpha, \beta) d\alpha d\beta = \lambda_i \phi_i(\alpha, \beta) \quad (6)$$

Upon close examination of equation 6, the integral equation would be recognized as a two-dimensional convolution of two functions (7:10). The unique feature of the convolution theorem that makes it very appealing is that in the other transform domain, the two functions are multiplied together. Therefore, the Fourier transform of equation 6 can be written as

$$S(w_x, w_y) \Phi_i(jw_x, jw_y) = \lambda_i \psi(jw_x, w_y) \quad (7)$$

where  $S(w_x, w_y)$  = Fourier transform of  $R(x, y)$  (power density spectrum)

$\Phi_i(jw_x, jw_y)$  = Fourier transform of  $\phi_i(\alpha, \beta)$

For the equality in equation 7 to hold either one of two conditions must be met: either  $S(w_x, w_y) = \lambda_i$ , which is an impossibility since the  $\lambda_i$ 's are scalar multiples and  $S(w_x, w_y)$  is in a functional form, or more realistically,  $\Phi_i(jw_x, jw_y)$  is an impulse function. The choice of the impulse function would be appropriate since it can be set to sample the

power density spectrum at the particular value of  $w_x$ 's where the function equals the value of the scalar multiple.

$$\phi_i(jw_x, jw_y) = \delta(w_x - w_{xi}; w_y - w_{yi}) \quad (8)$$

Thus, by taking the inverse Fourier transform of this impulse function, the resulting eigenfunctions for the space domain are:

$$\phi_i(x, y) = T^{-1}(\delta(w_x - w_{xi}; w_y - w_{yi})) \quad (9)$$

$$* \phi_i(x, y) = \exp(j(w_{xi}x + w_{yi}y)) \quad (8:237-42) \quad (10)$$

In reality, the space domain is limited by the system FOV and the random process describing the image intensity may not be truly spatially stationary. However, if the system FOV is relatively large and the random process is quasi-stationary, it could be heuristically argued that the resulting eigenfunctions still asymptotically approach complex exponentials. This result would provide reasonable motivation to use complex exponentials (Fourier transform) as the transformation function on the images in question.

In closing this section, it should be reiterated that the Karhunen-Loëve transformation is difficult to perform in its exact form. However, under the assumptions of spatial stationarity and a space domain large in extent, the Karhunen-Loëve equation provides adequate motivation for using familiar transformations involving complex exponentials such as Fourier.

\* This same argument has been developed for the one-dimensional case in Chapter 8 of Introduction to Statistical Pattern Recognition by Keinosuke Fukunaga.

### Fourier Transform

The Fourier transform is a familiar transformation to the electrical engineer. In the one dimensional case, it is a transform quite often used to relate occurrences in the time domain to those in the frequency domain. However, with the ability of lenses to perform Fourier transforming instantaneously, the field of Fourier optics has provided motivation for extending the concept of the Fourier transform and its properties into two-dimensional space. As a result of this extension, the two-dimensional Fourier transform becomes

$$G(f_x, f_y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int g(x, y) \exp -j2\pi(f_x x + f_y y) dx dy \quad (7:5) \quad (11)$$

where

$G(f_x, f_y)$  = Fourier or Frequency Spectrum

$g(x, y)$  = Function in the Space Domain

$f_x, f_y$  = Spatial Frequencies

$x, y$  = Spatial Variables

In comparing the one-dimensional and two-dimensional Fourier transforms, similarities should be recognizable; the use of the complex exponential as the eigenfunction, and the generation of spatial frequencies  $f_x, f_y$  to correspond with the spatial coordinate  $x$  and  $y$ . A particular property that has been extended to the two-dimensional case which is a vital part of this thesis is the shift theorem. The shift theorem states that a translation of an image in the space domain results in a linear phase shift in the spatial frequency domain:

$$\mathcal{T}\{g(x-a, y-b)\} = G(f_x, f_y) \exp(-j2\pi(f_x a + f_y b)) \quad (7:9) \quad (12)$$

where

a = offset of the spatial function along the x direction from a centered position

b = offset of the spatial function along the y direction from a centered position

To negate the translational effects in the space domain, the Fourier transform of the translated image is multiplied by the complex conjugate of the linear phase shift:

$$g(x,y) = T^{-1}\{G(f_x, f_y) \exp(-j2\pi(f_x a + f_y b)) \exp(j2\pi(f_x a + f_y b))\} \quad (13)$$

Up to now, the continuous case of the Fourier transform has been discussed, but to utilize the Fourier transform and its properties for computer simulation, the discrete form of the Fourier equations must be used. Such a development is contained in Digital Signal Processing by Alan V. Oppenheim and Ronald W. Schafer. The discrete Fourier transform and the discrete version of the shift theorem are as follows:

$$T(x(m,n)) = \frac{1}{MN} \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} X(k,l) \exp\left(-\frac{j2\pi km}{M}\right) \exp\left(\frac{-j2\pi ln}{N}\right) \quad (14)$$

Discrete Fourier Transform (9:115)

$$\begin{aligned} T(x(m-m_0, n-n_0)) &= \frac{1}{MN} \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} X(k,l) \exp\left(-\frac{j2\pi km}{M}\right) \exp\left(\frac{-j2\pi ln}{N}\right) \\ &\quad \times \exp\left(\frac{-j2\pi k m_0}{M}\right) \exp\left(\frac{-j2\pi l n_0}{N}\right) \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

$$0 \leq m_0 \leq M \quad 0 \leq n_0 \leq N$$

Discrete Shift Theorem (9:110)

where  $m, n$  = sequence numbers in the space domain

$k, l$  = sequence numbers in spatial frequency domain

$M, N$  = spatial area covered by the sequence numbers

$m_o, n_o$  = translation of discrete pattern about its centered location.

As the definition of the variables may imply, the use of the discrete Fourier transform implies certain knowledge is known. In essence, the discrete Fourier transform views a finite area as being repeated indefinite in both the x and y directions. Therefore, the establishment of the two-dimensional periodicity is imperative. The discretization of the finite area is reflected in the sequence numbers. The relationship between the sequence numbers and distance in the original space domain is shown in Figure 2. Notice that each pair of sequence numbers represent a smaller area within the previously mentioned finite area. For application to this thesis, the smaller area is represented by 20 urad x 20 urad with the total finite area being 480 urad x 480 urad. This results in the sequence numbers ( $m, n$ ) varying from 1 to 24. Thus the sequence lengths ( $M, N$ ) equal 24.

In the computer software for this project, a more efficient version of the discrete Fourier transform known as the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) is used. The FFT and the Inverse Fast Fourier Transform (IFFT) are performed using a subroutine called FOURT. FOURT is a multi-dimensional FFT routine which uses the Cooley-Tukey method of calculation (10:76-9). A unique feature of the FOURT subroutine is the arrangement of the data array in the spatial frequency domain. As a result of the FOURT software, the FOURT format locates the D.C. term (zero frequency) in the upper left hand corner and the harmonics are misaligned as shown in Figure 3. In order to perform signal processing in the spatial frequency domain, the data array quadrants are switched, 2 with 4 and 1 with 3 (11:17). As shown in Figure 4, for an M by N dimension array, where M

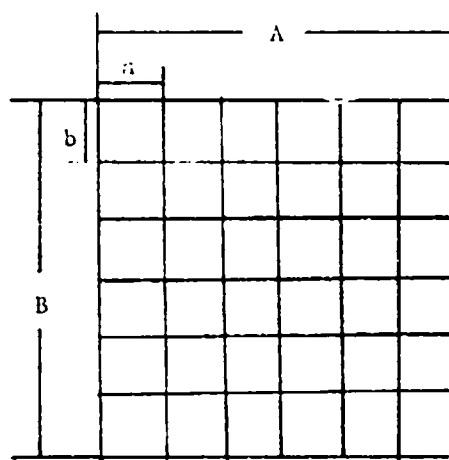


Figure 2A. Finite Area  $A \times B$

(1,1)	(1,2)	(1,3)	(1,4)	(1,5)	(1,6)
•	•	•	•	•	•
(2,1)	(2,2)	(2,3)	(2,4)	(2,5)	(2,6)
•	•	•	•	•	•
(3,1)	(3,2)	(3,3)	(3,4)	(3,5)	(3,6)
•	•	•	•	•	•
(4,1)	(4,2)	(4,3)	(4,4)	(4,5)	(4,6)
•	•	•	•	•	•
(5,1)	(5,2)	(5,3)	(5,4)	(5,5)	(5,6)
•	•	•	•	•	•
(6,1)	(6,2)	(6,3)	(6,4)	(6,5)	(6,6)
•	•	•	•	•	•

Figure 2B. Sequence Numbers

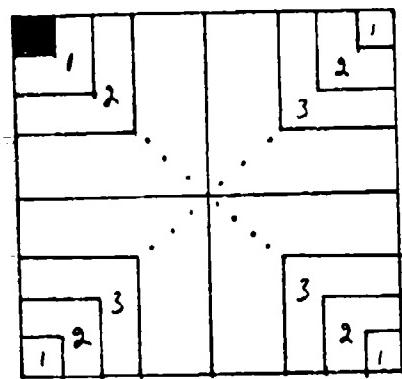


Figure 3. FOURT Format

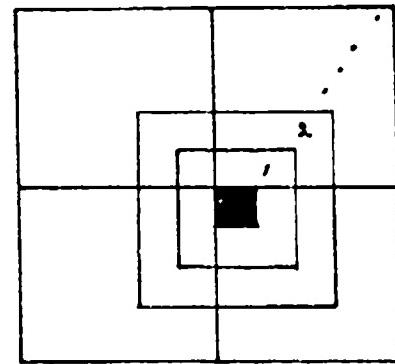


Figure 4. Rearranged Format

and N have to be even numbers, this rearranged format results in the D.C. term located at  $(\frac{M}{2} + 1, \frac{N}{2} + 1)$  with the first concentric window surrounding the D.C. term being the first harmonic and corresponding higher harmonics matching with its appropriate window (11:18). Once the signal processing has taken place, the data array has to be rearranged back into the FOURT format before the IFFT is taken (11:19-21).

Another requirement for FFT processing is to pad the input data array with zeroes to reduce edge effects, aliasing, and leakage conditions. A precise definition of all three of these conditions as they apply to FFT's is difficult to come by. However, the effect of these three conditions is related to how the FFT views the finite area as one period in a domain infinite in extent. For a finite area unpadded with zeroes, there is a chance that important information clustered along the edges can be viewed as part of the adjacent period thus causing distortion in the FFT and subsequent image from the IFFT (11:13, 92-3). To prevent this possible distortion from occurring with this project, the original  $8 \times 8$  array of FLIR data is arbitrarily padded with an additional 8 rows of zeroes on the top, bottom, and sides. This additional padding results in the  $24 \times 24$  input array mentioned earlier in this section.

In summary, the FFT and IFFT processes for this project is done using the FOURT subroutine. To negate the translational effects on an image, the shift theorem of the Fourier transform will be digitally implemented. Finally, to eliminate possible distortion by edge effects, aliasing and leakage conditions, the original  $8 \times 8$  array of data is padded with additional zeroes.

### Averaging

In reality, the existence of a noise-free environment is fictitious. For computer simulations, this noise could be added to a computer-generated noise-free image. The actual details of how the noise corruption simulation is accomplished is discussed in the next section. Nonetheless, the noise effects can be minimized by appropriate data processing techniques. Since a priori knowledge of the precise form of the noise is normally not available, the underlying mathematics makes little assumption about the precise form. However, it is necessary to assume that the noise changes faster from sample period to sample period than the image pattern itself. Traditionally, the moving average technique is used to combat the effect of noise under these conditions. This technique would store the most recent  $K-1$  pieces of data in memory and average the data in memory with the new data in memory with the new piece of data using a weighting factor of  $1/K$  on each piece of data (12:115). However, this technique does have one major disadvantage. It would require  $K$  storage locations of computer memory for each pixel. Therefore, for an  $N \times N$  input array,  $KN^2$  storage locations of computer memory is required. Thus, for large  $K$  and large input arrays, significant data processing problems would arise. An alternative method which alleviates this problem associated with the moving average is called exponential smoothing (12:114-28). The equation that is fundamental to this process is:

$$\hat{y}(t) = \alpha y(t) + (1-\alpha) \hat{y}(t-1) \quad (12:115) \quad (16)$$

where  $\hat{y}(t)$  = most recent averaged value

$y(t)$  = most recent piece of data

$\hat{y}(t-1)$  = previous averaged value

$\alpha$  = smoothing constant

$$0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$$

A key parameter in the exponential smoothing equation is the smoothing constant  $\alpha$  which can vary anywhere from 0 to 1 inclusive, depending on how much  $\hat{y}(t)$  is to respond to the most recent piece of data. For noisy data and slowly changing signal pattern, it is suggested that the values of  $\alpha$  tend more toward 0 than 1 so that there is some damping of the noise, yet there is still some response to the most recent piece of data (12: 115). For this thesis project, a steady state value of 0.1 for the smoothing constant was assumed. The notion of steady state value is important since a pseudo-exponential smoothing technique is used to provide better sensitivity to the initial 10 pieces of data. In essence, the smoothing constant is varied for each of the first ten runs (i.e.  $\alpha = 1/K$   $K = 1, 2, 3, \dots, 10$ ) until the steady state value of  $\alpha = 0.1$  was reached.

In closing this section, it is interesting to note that the exponential smoothing technique possesses those qualities that the moving average lack. First, only  $2N^2$  computer storage locations are needed to generate  $\hat{y}(t)$ . Second,  $\hat{y}(t)$  contains portions of all past  $\hat{y}(t)$ 's although the initial pieces of data have less of an impact on the most recent averaged value.

#### Spatial Noise

To model the real world environment, noise corruption should be added to any computer simulation. There are two general types of characteristics to specify for the noise corruption in this problem, temporal and spatial. Temporally correlated noise implies that knowing

something about the noise at one particular time infers something about the noise at a later time. Normally, this inference can be modelled by a correlation function that is exponential in shape (5:37). However, since temporally correlated noise corruption has little effect on the quality of the image beyond that of temporally uncorrelated noise at the expected signal-to-noise ratio for this application, and since it is difficult to implement in a computer simulation, it was not included in this thesis project (5:37).

Under spatial noise characteristics, there are two categories, spatially uncorrelated and correlated noise. Before examining these two areas, a number system for the  $8 \times 8$  input pixel array and the  $64 \times 64$  resultant correlation matrix have to be developed. The  $8 \times 8$  array is numbered from 1 to 64 by rows starting in the upper left-hand corner (Figure 5).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48
49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56
57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64

Figure 5. Pixel Numbering Scheme (5:19)

In the associated  $64 \times 64$  correlation matrix, each row or column represents how that particular pixel relates to the other pixels in the input array. For example, row 1 or column 1 represents the correlation for how pixel 1 relates to itself and the other 63 pixels. Two unique

features of the correlation matrix are (1) since the correlation between two pixels is the same in both directions (i.e.  $r_{ij} = r_{ji}$ ), the correlation matrix is symmetric and (2) since the correlation coefficient is one for a pixel related to itself, the diagonal elements of the matrix are one. In determining the off diagonal terms, the first and second nearest neighbor concept discussed in Harnly and Jensen's thesis was used (5:18-20). Essentially, the exponential form of the correlation function is assumed in generating the correlation coefficients. However, the non zero values generated are limited to the first and second nearest neighbors of the pixel in question. This condition results in 25 out of 64 entries in each row or column being nonzero. Of these 25 values, there are only six distinct values; one for the correlation coefficient of the pixel with itself, four values of 0.3679, four values of 0.2431, four values of 0.1353, eight values of 0.1069, and four values of 0.0591. These nonzero values, which are used to generate the  $64 \times 64$  correlation coefficient matrix (C), were developed from the following equation

$$C_{ij} = \exp(-\frac{d_{ij}}{20}) \quad (17)$$

where  $d_{ij}$  = distance from center of pixel i to center of pixel j

The choice of a correlation distance of 20 urad is dictated by the non-zero values generated by the first and second nearest neighbor concept (Figure 6).

$c_5 = 0.0591$	$c_4 = 0.1069$	$c_3 = 0.1353$	$c_4 = 0.1609$	$c_5 = 0.0591$
$c_4 = 0.1069$	$c_2 = 0.2431$	$c_1 = 0.3679$	$c_2 = 0.2431$	$c_4 = 0.1609$
$c_3 = 0.1353$	$c_1 = 0.3679$	$c_0 = 1$	$c_1 = 0.3679$	$c_3 = 0.1353$
$c_4 = 0.1069$	$c_2 = 0.2431$	$c_1 = 0.3679$	$c_2 = 0.2431$	$c_4 = 0.1609$
$c_5 = 0.0591$	$c_4 = 0.1069$	$c_3 = 0.1353$	$c_4 = 0.1609$	$c_5 = 0.0591$

Figure 6. First and Second Nearest Correlations Coefficient

For the spatially correlated case, the matrix of correlation coefficients becomes

$$\underline{C} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & c_{1,2} & c_{1,3} & \dots & c_{1,64} \\ c_{1,2} & 1 & c_{2,3} & \dots & c_{2,64} \\ c_{1,3} & c_{2,3} & 1 & \dots & c_{3,64} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ c_{1,64} & c_{2,64} & c_{3,64} & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

To complete the process for generating the noise, the  $64 \times 64$  correlation

coefficient matrix is pre-multiplied by the scalar value of the variance  $\sigma_n^2$  in order to generate the correlation matrix itself.

$$\underline{R} = \sigma_n^2 \underline{C} = \sigma_n^2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & c_{1,2} & c_{1,3} & \dots & c_{1,64} \\ c_{1,2} & 1 & c_{2,3} & \dots & c_{2,64} \\ c_{1,3} & c_{2,3} & 1 & \dots & c_{3,64} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ c_{1,64} & c_{2,64} & c_{3,64} & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Now that  $\underline{R}$  is known, the  $64 \times 1$  noise vector ( $\underline{v}(t_i)$ ), which will be added to the input array, can be computed by using the Cholesky square root. Specifically,

$$\underline{v}(t_i) = \sqrt{\underline{R}} \underline{w}(t_i) \quad (18)$$

where  $\underline{w}(t_i)$  = 64-dimensional independent white Gaussian noise vector  
(zero mean, variance of  $\underline{I}$ )

$$\text{thus } E(\underline{w}(t_i) \underline{w}^T(t_i)) = \underline{I} \delta_{ij}$$

The Cholesky square root is a unique matrix decomposition which produces the square root of  $\underline{R}$  in the lower triangular form. This lower triangular form minimizes the number of nonzero computations in generating  $\underline{v}(t_i)$ .

To recover the original  $\underline{R}$  matrix, the  $\sqrt{\underline{R}}$  should be post-multiplied by  $\sqrt{\underline{R}}^T$  therefore  $\sqrt{\underline{R}} \sqrt{\underline{R}}^T = \underline{R}$ . Because of this property, the covariance of  $\underline{v}(t_i)$  is preserved with the use of the Cholesky square root:

$$\begin{aligned} E(\underline{v}(t_i) \underline{v}^T(t_j)) &= E(\sqrt{\underline{R}} \underline{w}(t_i) \underline{w}^T(t_j) \sqrt{\underline{R}}^T) \\ &= \sqrt{\underline{R}} E(\underline{w}(t_i) \underline{w}^T(t_j)) \sqrt{\underline{R}}^T = \sqrt{\underline{R}} \underline{I} \sqrt{\underline{R}}^T \delta_{ij} \\ &= \underline{R} \delta_{ij} \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

As mentioned earlier, the noise vector will be added to the noise-free input matrix to model real-world image conditions. This resulting vector called  $\underline{z}(t_i)$  is the measurement vector that will be provided to the Extended Kalman Filter. Algebraically, the  $z$  vector is developed from the truth model and is of the form

$$\underline{z}(t_i) = \underline{h}(\underline{x}(t_i), t_i) + \underline{v}(t_i) \quad (20)$$

where  $\underline{x}(t_i)$  = output state vector from the system dynamics model

$\underline{h}(\underline{x}(t_i), t_i)$  = nonlinear measurement function developed from  
image intensity pattern

$\underline{v}(t_i)$  = measurement noise vector

As discussed in the problem overview, the development of the nonlinear  $h$  function from the measurement vector  $\underline{z}(t_i)$  is a major goal of this thesis.

In summary, since temporally correlated noise has been shown to have little effect on the Kalman Filter performance at the signal-to-noise ratios for this project, only spatially correlated and uncorrelated noise was used. The correlation matrix used to generate the noise vector  $\underline{v}(t_i)$  is developed from the first and second nearest neighbor concept as it applies to a correlation function exponential in nature. The Cholesky square root of the correlation matrix is taken and post-multiplied by a white noise vector  $\underline{w}(t_i)$ , with the final result being the noise vector  $\underline{v}(t_i)$  that is added to the noise-free image array to provide the necessary noise corruption.

#### Relationship Between Truth Model and Extended Kalman Filter

In the previous section, terms such as truth model, system dynamics, and Extended Kalman Filter were used. These terms represent the heart

of this project. The truth model is a best representation of the environment from which the measurement vector  $\underline{z}(t_i)$  is generated. These environmental characteristics include the underlying target dynamics, atmospheric effects, and background noise. In order to process the measurement vector  $\underline{z}(t_i)$  and provide a best estimate of the underlying target centroid location for the next sample period, the Extended Kalman Filter is used. The actual details of the filter will be discussed in a later section. However, the interplay between the Kalman Filter and the truth model is a point which at times can be confusing. In order to provide a best estimate of the underlying centroid location, the dynamic models are a facsimile of those in the truth model. Ideally, the models should match exactly, but in reality, due to the desire for computational efficiency, there are always deviations. The amount of deviation in the dynamics models for the filter varies depending on the problem application. A contributing factor to this deviation may be a lack of knowledge concerning the exact form of the truth models. However, due to the robustness of the Kalman filter, adequate predictions of the centroid location can still be accomplished.

#### Truth Model

Much has been discussed concerning the dynamic models. For this project, it had been envisioned to investigate the feasibility of using both deterministic and stochastic models. In the realm of deterministic models, initially, the target dynamics involved a stationary target centered in the system FOV. This step was taken to identify and eliminate any possible inherent motion caused by the pattern recognition or Extended Kalman Filter algorithms. The next deterministic model involved

a target moving across the image plane at a constant velocity. This was done to test the robustness of the Extended Kalman Filter. Supposedly, the filter design used for this project can absorb any truth model whose resultant motion from one sample period to the next is less than one-half pixel (i.e. less than 10 urads) (13).

In the realm of stochastic models, the target and atmospheric dynamics developed in Mercier's thesis were used (3:9-16). The target dynamics are modelled in each direction as a first-order Gauss-Markov process driven by white Gaussian noise

$$\dot{X}_D(t) = -\frac{1}{\lambda_T} X_D(t) + W_1(t) \quad (16)$$

$$\dot{Y}_D(t) = -\frac{1}{\lambda_T} Y_D(t) + W_2(t) \quad (17)$$

where  $E(W_1(t)) = E(W_2(t)) = 0$  (18)

$$E(W_1(t) W_2(s)) = E(W_2(t) W_2(s)) = \frac{2\sigma_d^2}{\lambda_T} \delta(t-s) \quad (19)$$

$$E(W_1(t) W_2(s)) = 0 \quad (20)$$

$\lambda_T$  = truth model correlation time

$W_1(t)$ ,  $W_2(t)$  = continuous time independent white Gaussian noise processes

$\sigma_d^2$  = the desired variance on the outputs  $X_D$  and  $Y_D$  (3:10).

The atmospheric jitter model was based on a study by the Analytic Sciences Corporation (14:29,30) and a data analysis by Hogge and Butts (15). These studies resulted in the development of a third order shaping filter, with a single pole at 14.14 rad/sec and a double pole at 659.5 rad/sec, that is driven by white Gaussian noise (3:12).

Since any  $n^{th}$  order differential equation can be written as a set

of coupled first order differential equations, the state space model incorporating both the target dynamics and atmospheric effects was generated using the Jordon canonical form (3:13). Referring to the state space model from Mercier's thesis,

$$\dot{\underline{X}}_T = \underline{F}_T \underline{X}_T + \underline{G}_T \underline{W}_T (t) \quad (21)$$

where  $\underline{F}_T$  = the truth model plant matrix

$\underline{X}_T$  = the truth model state vector

$\underline{G}_T$  = the truth model input matrix

$\underline{W}_T$  = a vector of white Gaussian noise inputs

$$E\{\underline{W}_T(t)\} = 0 \quad (22)$$

$$E\{\underline{W}_T(t) \underline{W}_T^T(s)\} = \underline{Q}_T \delta(t-s) \quad (23)$$

$$\underline{Q}_T = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2\sigma_d^2}{\lambda_T} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{2\sigma_d^2}{\lambda_T} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (24)$$

$$\underline{F}_T = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{\lambda_T} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -a & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -b & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -b & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{\lambda_T} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -b & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -b \end{bmatrix} \quad (25)$$

$$a = 14.14 \text{ rad/sec} \quad b = 659.5 \text{ rad/sec}$$

$$\underline{G}_T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & G_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & G_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & G_3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & G_1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & G_2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & G_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad (26)$$

$$G_1 = \frac{ab^2}{(a-b)^2} \quad G_2 = -G_1 \quad G_3 = \frac{ab^2}{(a-b)} \quad (3:11-14)$$

The composition of these truth model matrices is dictated by the components of the truth model state vector describing the target dynamics and atmospheric effect on the centroid location. For this project from  $\underline{x}_T$ ,

$$\underline{x}_D = \underline{x}(1) \quad (27)$$

$$X_A = X(2) + X(3) \quad (28)$$

$$Y_D = X(5) \quad (29)$$

$$Y_A = X(6) + X(7) \quad (3:14) \quad (30)$$

where  $X_A$  and  $Y_A$  are atmospheric jitter variables as output of third order shaping filter.

In order to transition the state vector from one sample period to another, propagation equations are developed. The basis for these equations is the solution to the matrix differential equation

$$\dot{\underline{\Phi}}(t, t_i) = \underline{F}_T \underline{\Phi}(t, t_i) \quad (31)$$

where  $\underline{\Phi}(t, t_i)$  = state transition matrix from time  $t_i$  to time  $t$   
associated with the matrix  $\underline{F}_T$

$$\underline{\Phi}(t_i, t_i) = \underline{I} \quad (3:14) \quad (32)$$

Since the truth model plant matrix  $\underline{F}_T$  is a constant, the state transition matrix is stationary with respect to time. Therefore,  $\underline{\Phi}(t_{ix}, t_i)$  is also constant for a fixed sample period (3:14). Using this truth model plant matrix, the solution to the above differential equation

becomes

$$\underline{\Phi}_T(\Delta t) = \begin{bmatrix} e^{-\Delta t/\lambda T} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-a\Delta t} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & e^{-b\Delta t} & te^{-b\Delta t} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & e^{-b\Delta t} \end{bmatrix} \quad (33)$$

$$\Delta t = (t_{i+1} - t_i)$$

The state transition matrix is used in the solution to the state space vector differential equation

$$\dot{\underline{x}}_T = E_T \underline{x}_T(t) + G_T \underline{w}_T(t) \quad (34)$$

This solution is

$$\underline{x}_T(t_{i+1}) = \underline{\Phi}_T(\Delta t) \underline{x}_T(t_i) \quad (35)$$

$$+ \int_{t_i}^{t_{i+1}} \underline{\Phi}_T(t_{i+1}, \lambda) \underline{G}_T(\lambda) \underline{w}_T(\lambda) d\lambda \quad (36)$$

The details for the following argument are contained in Mercier's thesis.

Nonetheless, the resulting equivalent discrete-time model to the above equation is

$$\underline{x}_T(t_{i+1}) = \underline{\Phi}_T(\Delta t) \underline{x}_T(t_i) + \sqrt{Q_d} \underline{w}_d(t_i) \quad (37)$$

where  $\sqrt{Q_d}$  is the Cholesky square root of

$$Q_d = \int_{t_i}^{t_{i+1}} \underline{\Phi}_T(t_{i+1}, \lambda) \underline{G}_T(\lambda) \underline{Q}_T(\lambda) \underline{G}_T(\lambda) \underline{\Phi}_T^T(t_{i+1}, \lambda) d\lambda \quad (38)$$

$$E\{\underline{w}_d(t_i)\} = 0 \quad (39)$$

$$E\{\underline{w}_d(t_i) \underline{w}_d^T(t_i)\} = I \lambda_{ij} \quad (3:14-5) \quad (40)$$

In summary, three truth models were developed for this project.

Two models were deterministic in nature; a stationary target and a target moving at a constant velocity across the image plane. These models were primarily developed to trouble-shoot and provide a bench mark for the pattern recognition and Extended Kalman Filter algorithms. The third model is the stochastic representation that will ultimately be used to analyze the Filter performance.

#### Extended Kalman Filter

As stated before, the basic Extended Kalman Filter developed in Mercier's thesis was used for this project. The target dynamics assumed

by the Filter is also a first order Gauss-Markov process, generated by a first-order lag driven by white Gaussian noise (3:19). The differential equation describing a particular state, which is very similar to that for the stochastic truth model, is

$$\dot{X}(t) = -\frac{1}{\lambda} X(t) + W(t) \quad (41)$$

$$E(W(t)) = 0 \quad (42)$$

$$E(W(t) W(s)) = \frac{2\sigma^2}{\lambda} \delta(t-s) \quad (43)$$

where  $\lambda$  = correlation time

$X(t)$  = state

$\dot{X}(t)$  = time derivative of the state

$W(t)$  = white Gaussian noise (3:19)

However, the plant, input, and white noise covariance matrices assumed by the filter differ from those developed in the truth model. The reduced order filter design assumes four states in its state vector  $(X_D, Y_D, X_A, Y_D)^T$  which results in a state vector differential equation

$$\dot{\underline{X}}_F(t) = \underline{F}_F \underline{X}_F(t) + \underline{W}_F(t) \quad (44)$$

where  $\underline{X}_F(t)$  = filter state vector

$\underline{F}_F$  = filter plant matrix

$\underline{W}_F(t)$  = input white noise vector

$$\underline{F}_F = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{\lambda_D} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{\lambda_D} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{\lambda_A} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{\lambda_A} \end{bmatrix} \quad (45)$$

$\lambda_D$  = correlation time assumed for target dynamics

$\lambda_A$  = correlation time assumed for atmospheric jitter

$$E(\underline{w}_F(t)) = 0 \quad (46)$$

$$E(\underline{w}_F(t) \underline{w}_F^T(s)) = Q_F \delta(t-s) \quad (47)$$

$$Q_F = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2\sigma_D^2}{\lambda_D} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{2\sigma_D^2}{\lambda_D} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{2\sigma_A^2}{\lambda_A} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{2\sigma_A^2}{\lambda_A} \end{bmatrix} \quad (48)$$

$\sigma_D^2$  = assumed target dynamics noise variance

$\sigma_A^2$  = assumed atmospheric noise variance (3:20)

It should be mentioned that the values of the  $Q_F$  matrix are determined during the off-line tuning process designed to produce the optimal tracking performance (16:224).

As with the truth model, the Kalman Filter performs a propagation of its state estimate vector and conditional covariance matrix from one sample time to the next. The state transition matrix is also developed from a differential equation similar to that used in the truth model, except the filter plant matrix is used instead of the truth model plant matrix.

$$\dot{\underline{\Phi}}_F(t, t_i) = \underline{F}_F \underline{\Phi}_F(t, t_i) \quad (3:21) \quad (49)$$

$$\underline{\Phi}(t_i, t_i) = I \quad (50)$$

Since  $\underline{F}$  is a time invariant matrix, the solution to the above differential equation is  $\underline{\Phi}_F(t, t_i)$ , the filter state transition matrix, given by

$$\underline{\Phi}_F(t, t_i) = \begin{bmatrix} e^{-(t-t_i)/\lambda_D} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-(t-t_i)/\lambda_D} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & e^{-(t-t_i)/\lambda_A} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & e^{-(t-t_i)/\lambda_A} \end{bmatrix} \quad (51)$$

In solving the associated differential equation for the propagation of the covariance matrix, the following stochastic integral equation results:

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{P}(t_{i+1}^-) &= \underline{\Phi}_F(t_{i+1}, t_i) \underline{P}(t_i^+) \underline{\Phi}_F^T(t_{i+1}, t_i) \\ &\quad + \int_{t_i}^{t_{i+1}} \underline{\Phi}_F(t_{i+1}, \lambda) \underline{Q}_F(\lambda) \underline{\Phi}_F^T(t_{i+1}, \lambda) d\lambda \end{aligned} \quad (52)$$

where  $\underline{\Phi}_F(t_{i+1}, t_i)$  = filter state transition matrix

$\underline{P}(t_i^+)$  = conditional state covariance matrix from measurement update equation at time  $t_i$

$\underline{P}(t_{i+1}^-)$  = conditional state covariance matrix propagated from time  $t_i$  to  $t_{i+1}$

$\underline{Q}_F(\lambda)$  = noise covariance matrix (3:21)

Using the  $\underline{Q}_F$  matrix specified in equation 48, the solution to the integral term in the stochastic equation above becomes

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{cccc} \sigma_D^2(1-e(-\frac{2\Delta t}{\lambda_D})) & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_D^2(1-e(-\frac{2\Delta t}{\lambda_D})) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_A^2(1-e(-\frac{2\Delta t}{\lambda_A})) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \sigma_A^2(1-e(-\frac{2\Delta t}{\lambda_A})) \end{array}} \quad (53)$$

To solidify the development of the propagation equations, the following summary of the estimated state vector and the conditional covariance matrix propagation equations is presented.

$$\hat{x}(t_{i+1}^-) = \boxed{\begin{array}{cccc} e^{-\Delta t/\lambda_D} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-\Delta t/\lambda_D} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & e^{-\Delta t/\lambda_A} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & e^{-\Delta t/\lambda_A} \end{array}} \quad \hat{x}(t_i^+) \quad (54)$$

$$\underline{P}(t_{i+1}^-) = \boxed{\begin{array}{cccc} e^{-\Delta t/\lambda_D} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-\Delta t/\lambda_D} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & e^{-\Delta t/\lambda_A} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & e^{-\Delta t/\lambda_A} \end{array}} \quad P(t_i^+) \quad (54)$$

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{cccc} e^{-\Delta t/\lambda_D} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-\Delta t/\lambda_D} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & e^{-\Delta t/\lambda_A} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & e^{-\Delta t/\lambda_A} \end{array}}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix}
 \sigma_D^2 (1-e(-\frac{2\Delta t}{\lambda_D})) & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & \sigma_D^2 (1-e(-\frac{2\Delta t}{\lambda_D})) & 0 & 0 \\
 + & 0 & 0 & \sigma_A^2 (1-e(-\frac{2\Delta t}{\lambda_A})) & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & \sigma_A^2 (1-e(-\frac{2\Delta t}{\lambda_A}))
 \end{bmatrix} \quad (55)$$

### Measurement Update

Once the state vector and covariance matrix are propagated up to the next sample time, the Kalman filter utilizes this information, along with the measurement vector available, to compute an estimate of the underlying target centroid location. The measurement update equations which are exploited by the Kalman Filter to perform this operation are:

$$\underline{K}(t_i) = \underline{P}(t_i^-) \underline{H}^T(t_i) (\underline{H}(t_i)\underline{P}(t_i^-)\underline{H}(t_i) + \underline{R}(t_i))^{-1} \quad (56)$$

$$\hat{\underline{x}}(t_i^+) = \hat{\underline{x}}(t_i^-) + \underline{K}(t_i) (\underline{z}(t_i) - \underline{h}(\hat{\underline{x}}(t_i^-), t_i)) \quad (57)$$

$$\underline{P}(t_i^+) = \underline{P}(t_i^-) - \underline{K}(t_i) \underline{H}(t_i) \underline{P}(t_i^-) \quad (58)$$

where

$\underline{P}(t_i^-)$  = propagated conditional covariance matrix from filter, before measurement incorporation at time  $t_i$

$\hat{\underline{x}}(t_i^-)$  = propagated state estimate vector from filter

$\underline{K}(t_i)$  = Kalman Filter Gain

$\underline{h}(\hat{\underline{x}}(t_i^-), t_i)$  = non-linear function of intensity measurements at time  $t_i$ , as a function of the state estimate

$\underline{H}(t_i) = \frac{\partial \underline{h}(\hat{\underline{x}}(t_i^-), t_i)}{\partial \underline{x}}$  = linear function of intensity measurements

$\underline{z}(t_i)$  = actual measurement vector

To ease the computational burden on the computer, a different form of the measurement update equation called the inverse covariance form is actually used in the computer software (3:26-7). In the conventional form, the calculation of the Kalman Filter Gain requires the inversion of a  $64 \times 64$  matrix for each update, since there are 64 scalar measurements (3:26). However, in the inverse covariance form, only two  $4 \times 4$  inverses are performed to obtain the  $\underline{P}(t_i^-)$  and  $\underline{P}(t_i^+)$  matrices (3:26-7).

The equations for the inverse covariance form are as follows:

$$\underline{P}^{-1}(t_i^+) = \underline{P}^{-1}(t_i^-) + \underline{H}^T(t_i^-) \underline{R}(t_i^-) \underline{H}(t_i^-) \quad (59)$$

$$\underline{P}(t_i^+) = (\underline{P}^{-1}(t_i^+))^{-1} \quad (60)$$

$$\underline{K}(t_i) = \underline{P}(t_i^+) \underline{H}^T(t_i^-) \underline{R}^{-1}(t_i^-) \quad (61)$$

$$\hat{\underline{x}}(t_i^+) = \hat{\underline{x}}(t_i^-) + \underline{K}(t_i^-) (\underline{z}(t_i) - \underline{h}(\hat{\underline{x}}(t_i^-), t_i)) \quad (62)$$

Normally, the non-linear  $h$  function and its spatial derivative (linearized  $H$  function) which are used in the update equations are explicit in form. However, for this project the non-linear  $h$  function is determined in real-time using the FFT, phase shifting and the averaging techniques discussed earlier. While the linearized  $H$  function is determined from the non-linear  $h$  function using the numerical approximation discussed in Appendix A.

In summary, the measurement update equation is that portion of the Kalman Filter which incorporates the actual intensity measurements to provide a best estimate of the target centroid location. In order to ease the computational burden of inverting a  $64 \times 64$  matrix, the inverse

covariance form of the update equations, which only requires the inversion of two  $4 \times 4$  matrices, was employed.

### III Performance Analysis

The performance analysis for this thesis follows that outlined in the Plan of Attack section. To begin, the validation of the FFT subroutine FOURT not only demonstrated its ability to reconstruct a two-dimensional array of data, but also established a zero level of  $10^{-8}$ . This zero level represents the greatest non-zero value in the IFFT where a zero would be found in the original image array.

The next step involved the development and validation of a subroutine used to perform the negating phase shift. This subroutine called Shift is described in more detail in Appendix D. In short, this subroutine applies the complex conjugate of the resulting linear phase shift from the translation of an image in the space domain to the Fourier transform of this same image. As a result, when the IFFT is taken, an image which is centered in the FOV is the end product. Figure 7 illustrates this process using the 40 urad x 40 urad intensity pattern.

In analyzing the performance of the exponential smoothing technique, a number of parameters were varied using the 3 gaussian pattern as a basis. These parameters included the signal-to-noise ratio, which varied between 10 and 20, and the sigma values for the spread of the gaussian patterns which included 1/4 pixel, 1 pixel, and 3 pixel spreads. The various sigma values provided a spectrum of shapes which ranged from sharply peaked ( $\sigma = 1/4$  pixel) to very broad ( $\sigma = 3$  pixels). The actual results are displayed in Figures 8 to 13. However, it is important to note that at a signal-to-noise ratio of 20, the pattern is readily identifiable regardless of its shape. However, the average technique does provide some smoothing of the data. At a signal-to-noise ratio of 10, the shape of the

pattern seems to make a difference. For the narrow gaussian patterns ( $\sigma = 1/4$  pixel) the pattern is difficult to recognize even after 50 runs. But, for the very wide gaussian pattern the general trend of increasing and decreasing numbers is maintained throughout the process, which may suggest that the filter performance may be better for larger targets. Still, it should be emphasized that this is only a superficial analysis and the more detailed analysis can only be performed once a complete filter simulation has been developed.

In implementing the first truth model, that of a stationary target, a major problem arose. Under ideal conditions (i.e. the Kalman Filter knowing exactly where the target is initially), the filter began to diverge from the known target. This divergence initially appeared at the first measurement update and became progressively worse as each subsequent propagation and measurement update were performed. Initially, it was speculated that there may be a Kalman Filter tuning problem. As a result, various values for the initial covariance matrix ( $P_0$ ) to improve the initial response of the filter, and for the covariance matrices for the dynamic driving noise ( $Q$ ) and the measurement noise ( $R$ ) to improve the steady state response were tried. Nonetheless, no noticeable improvement in the filter's performance resulted from this investigation. Next, it was conjectured that the problem may be within the subroutine UPD which performs the Kalman Filter measurement update. First, the search for a possible sign error or any other fault in the software was performed without any satisfaction. However, upon investigating the calculation of the Kalman filter gain  $K(t_i)$ , it was hypothesized that the forward-backwards difference method used to calculate the linearized h function ( $\underline{h}(t_i)$ ) which in turn is used to calculate the

filter gain, may be the source of the problem. To eliminate any possible concern that the divergence problem may be caused by the generation of the unknown non-linear and linear h functions, the analytic function for the noise-free centered gaussian patterns generated from the subroutine Input 3 was used as the non-linear h function. The analytic spatial derivative of the gaussian pattern in both the x and y directions was next taken and used as the linearized h function. The results of this analysis is presented in Table 1. As can be seen, it is verified that the source of the problem is not due to the generation of the unknown h functions. As a possible solution to this dilemma involving the divergence of the Kalman Filter, the Fourier transform derivative property, which will be discussed in more detail in the Conclusion and Recommendation section, should be implemented.

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Pattern Shifted  
(20 urad, 20 urad)

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Pattern Resulting From Shift Negation

Figure 7. Results of Shift Routine

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0.455	0.882	0	0	0
0	0	0	0.882	1.71	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0.455	0.882	0	0	0.455	0.882	0
0	0.882	1.71	0	0	0.882	1.71	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Figure 8. No Noise     $\sigma = 1/4$  pixel     $\alpha = 0.1$

0.352	0.283	-0.649	0.519	-0.287	-0.161	-0.427	-0.229
-0.382	-0.222	-0.798	-0.434	1.20	0.263	1.023	0.9622
-0.05	0.287	-0.355	1.53	1.61	1.29	0.138	1.22
-0.156	-0.383	1.71	1.12	0.221	1.26	0.416	1.155
0.731	0.843	-0.042	0.645	-0.176	0.303	1.31	-0.095
-0.082	0.135	-0.323	-0.401	-0.196	-0.336	0.5	-0.129
0.361	0.091	0.36	0.568	1.733	-0.631	1.28	-0.557

Figure 9A. 1st Run  $\sigma = 1/4$  Pixel S/N = 10  $\alpha = 0.1$

0.10	0.136	0.0318	0.022	-0.149	-0.218	0.0556	-0.0521
-0.159	-0.232	-0.294	0.444	0.349	0.133	0.183	-0.129
-0.153	0.158	0.684	1.049	0.799	0.223	0.724	0.641
0.087	0.279	0.738	0.572	-0.071	0.158	0.353	0.148
-0.113	-0.131	-0.045	0.127	0.011	0.135	-0.086	0.413
-0.129	0.117	0.319	-0.364	-0.242	-0.121	0.270	-0.081
-0.052	0.398	0.752	0.137	1.148	0.917	1.334	-0.435
0.218	0.293	-0.109	-0.235	0.643	0.133	-0.155	0.133

Figure 9B. 50th Run  $\sigma = 1/4$  Pixel S/N = 10  $\alpha = 0.1$

0.352	0.283	-0.649	-0.520	-0.287	-0.161	-0.427	-0.229
-0.382	-0.222	-0.798	-0.207	1.642	0.263	1.023	0.962
-0.049	0.287	0.499	2.41	2.46	1.29	0.992	1.66
-0.156	-0.383	2.15	1.35	0.221	1.26	0.857	1.38
0.731	0.843	-0.042	0.545	-0.176	0.303	1.31	-0.095
-0.083	0.363	1.175	-0.401	-0.196	-0.108	0.941	-0.129
0.361	0.532	1.21	0.568	2.59	0.250	2.14	-0.557
0.297	-0.485	0.378	0.098	2.22	-0.425	-0.467	0.674

Figure 10A. 1st Run  $\sigma = 1/4$  Pixel S/N = 20  $\alpha = 0.1$

0.10	0.136	0.032	0.022	-0.149	-0.218	0.056	-0.052
-0.159	-0.231	-0.293	0.683	0.814	0.134	0.183	-0.129
-0.153	0.158	1.49	1.93	1.70	0.223	1.53	1.06
0.087	0.279	1.16	0.787	-0.071	0.158	0.77	0.363
-0.113	-0.131	-0.045	0.127	0.011	0.135	-0.086	0.413
-0.129	0.357	0.784	-0.364	-0.242	0.118	0.734	-0.081
-0.052	0.862	1.65	0.138	1.96	1.80	2.23	-0.434
0.218	0.293	-0.109	-0.235	1.06	0.348	-0.154	0.133

Figure 10B. 50th Run  $\sigma = 1/4$  Pixel S/N = 20  $\alpha = 0.1$

12.17	16.46	20.22	22.51	22.73	20.81	17.29	13.03
16.04	21.43	26.08	28.90	29.17	26.82	22.46	17.12
19.84	26.14	31.49	34.72	35.02	32.34	27.33	21.11
23.06	29.97	35.73	39.17	39.49	36.64	31.25	24.47
25.13	32.24	38.08	41.51	41.84	38.99	33.55	26.60
25.52	32.39	37.94	41.16	41.47	38.79	33.64	26.94
23.95	30.14	35.07	37.92	38.18	35.83	31.26	25.23
20.61	25.78	29.86	32.18	32.40	30.48	26.71	21.69

Figure 11. No Noise    IMAX = 20     $\sigma$  = 3 pixels

5.51	7.51	7.71	11.22	11.11	10.36	8.79	6.81
8.16	11.49	12.90	13.33	15.83	13.81	10.42	9.17
9.60	13.16	15.75	15.41	18.81	16.96	11.75	9.83
10.51	15.21	18.73	19.04	19.77	19.11	14.41	13.36
14.14	15.93	20.27	20.42	20.80	20.38	16.31	13.03
13.80	16.33	19.86	21.89	20.67	21.17	17.56	12.62
12.0	15.0	17.91	20.10	19.82	19.27	15.13	13.06
11.31	13.51	16.26	16.04	16.10	13.79	10.31	10.69

Figure 12A. 1st Run  $\sigma = 3$  pixels  $S/N = 10$   $\alpha = 0.1$

3.304	4.472	5.355	5.951	5.838	5.264	4.608	3.378
4.064	10.55	12.89	15.03	15.24	14.81	13.16	10.48
5.071	13.01	15.57	17.79	18.16	17.71	15.41	12.92
6.16	14.55	17.69	19.85	20.14	19.55	17.14	14.04
6.51	14.66	17.92	20.29	20.93	20.23	17.76	15.05
6.59	14.20	17.24	19.15	20.03	19.12	17.12	14.11
6.25	12.87	15.56	17.78	18.68	17.69	16.12	12.40
5.65	11.13	13.07	14.59	15.66	14.78	13.05	10.92

Figure 12B. 50th Run  $\sigma = 3$  pixels  $S/N = 10$   $\alpha = 0.1$

11.59	15.74	17.82	22.48	22.47	20.77	17.44	13.32
16.17	22.20	25.94	27.79	30.41	27.22	21.66	17.73
19.52	26.23	31.50	32.77	36.32	33.13	25.41	20.59
22.04	30.19	36.60	38.62	39.51	37.43	30.04	25.60
26.70	32.05	39.31	41.18	41.72	39.88	33.09	26.32
26.55	32.53	38.83	42.47	41.40	40.56	34.37	26.09
23.97	30.06	35.44	39.06	38.91	37.18	30.76	25.68
21.61	26.40	31.19	32.13	32.30	29.03	23.66	21.53

Figure 13A. 1st Run  $\sigma = 3$  pixels  $S/N = 20$   $\alpha = 0.1$

6.51	8.81	10.67	11.87	11.82	10.74	9.16	6.81
8.29	21.32	26.08	29.85	30.59	29.49	26.14	21.09
10.29	25.87	31.26	35.41	36.42	35.20	30.91	25.61
12.23	28.81	35.06	39.35	40.36	38.94	34.35	28.15
13.12	29.44	35.89	40.45	41.85	40.32	35.61	29.83
13.31	28.52	34.63	38.66	40.29	38.61	34.43	28.29
12.56	25.80	31.26	35.41	37.03	35.34	31.80	25.23
11.07	21.97	26.24	29.41	31.10	29.65	26.26	21.70

Figure 13B. 50th Run  $\sigma = 3$  pixels  $S/N = 20$   $\alpha = 0.1$

Measurement Update No.	Correct Results	Unknown h Func' \ is		Known Non-linear h Function		Known h Functions	
		$\underline{x_D}$	$\underline{y_D}$	$\underline{x_D}$	$\underline{y_D}$	$\underline{x_D}$	$\underline{y_D}$
1	0.0	0.0	-0.565	0.934	-0.0028	0.449	0.00137
5	0.0	0.0	***	8.307	-4.82	0.126	-4.608
10	0.0	0.0	***	57.09	***	***	***
20	0.0	0.0	***	***	***	***	***
50	0.0	0.0	***	***	***	***	***

\*\*\* Absolute value exceeds 100

Table 1. Divergence Analysis

#### IV Conclusions and Recommendations

In conclusion, this thesis did not accomplish nearly as much as anticipated at the beginning of the project. However, a number of milestones were realized. To name a few, the digital implementation of a negating phase shift, the validation of the FOURT subroutine, and the implementation of the exponential smoothing technique were highlights of this project. Since the investigation of the deterministic stationary truth model identified a possible problem with the forward-backwards difference approximation, the deterministic constant velocity and stochastic truth models were not analyzed.

Although some analysis was accomplished with this project, more is needed. To begin, the arbitrary assumption of padding the input array with 8 additional rows and columns of zeroes could be investigated in more detail to determine if little distortion results in using less zeroes. In addition, a further extension on the analysis of the averaging technique would involve not only a further investigation of its dependency on the image shape, but also an investigation of how the filter's performance is affected when the steady state value of the smoothing constant  $\alpha$  is varied. Another modification to the computer algorithm that could be made deals with the sampling scheme described in Appendix A. A more unbiased and resolvable sampling scheme could be implemented. However, the addition of the Fourier transform derivative property would be the most important modification to the existing computer software, since it provides the best hope of solving the filter divergence problem. Analytically, the spatial derivative of the non-linear  $h$  function represents the linearized  $h$  function. This spatial

derivative could be more precisely calculated by using the following Fourier property:

$$T \left\{ \frac{\partial h(x,y)}{\partial x} \right\} = +j2\pi f_x H(f_x, f_y) \quad (63)$$

$$T \left\{ \frac{\partial h(x,y)}{\partial y} \right\} = j2\pi f_y H(f_x, f_y) \quad (17:314) \quad (64)$$

As a possible plan of attack for future research, the following steps may be taken. First and most importantly, the filter divergence problem must be solved, hopefully with the use of the Fourier Transform divergence property. Next, the deterministic constant velocity and stochastic truth models should be employed keeping in mind that the normal robustness that is characteristic of Kalman filters may not be possible since the negating phase shift requires extremely accurate estimates of the target location. Once this has been performed, the filter performance can be evaluated based on changes to the zero padding of the input array, changes to the sampling scheme of the same input array, and variation to the steady state smoothing constant.

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## APPENDIX A

### Numerical Approximation

In the development of this thesis project, two numerical approximations were used. In generating the measurement vector  $\underline{z}(t_i)$ , the first approximation involved computing the average intensity over each pixel. Algebraically, the component of the  $\underline{z}(t_i)$  vector corresponding to a particular pixel is

$$z_{jk}(t_i) = \frac{1}{A_p} \iint_{\text{region of } jk^{\text{th}} \text{ pixel}} I_{\text{target}}(x, y, t_i) dx dy + v_{jk}(t_i) \quad (65)$$

where  $A_p$  = area of one pixel

$I(x, y, t_i)$  = two-dimensional intensity pattern

$v_{jk}(t_i)$  = noise effect on the  $jk^{\text{th}}$  pixel

$z_{jk}(t_i)$  = actual measurement from  $jk^{\text{th}}$  pixel

Since a simple functional form of the intensity pattern that can be analytically integrated is not available, the exact integration of equation 65 cannot be performed. Instead, 25 sample points from each pixel will be taken and averaged to provide the average intensity over the pixel. The exact locations are given in Figure 14 below. It should be noted that samples are taken along the top and left edge of the pixel of interest so that duplicate sampling does not occur along the edges. In other words, the right edge becomes the sampled left edge for the next pixel to the right, while the bottom edge becomes the sampled top edge for the pixel just below. The selection of this sampling scheme was arbitrary. In follow-on projects, more samples from different locations may be taken to provide better resolution and thus more sensitivity

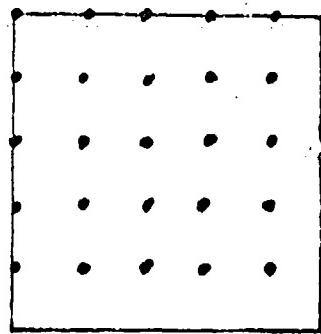


Figure 14. Pixel Sampling Scheme

to the movement of the intensity pattern from one sample period to another.

The second approximation, which is indirectly tied to the first, involves the generation of the linearized  $h$  function. Since an explicit analytical form of the non-linear  $h$  function is not available, an exact differentiation of this non-linear function to provide a linearized function cannot be performed. Instead, a numerical approximation known as the Forward-Backwards Difference Method is used (18:16-17). A familiar numerical method used in finite difference calculus, this technique is used to compute the derivative of a function to any higher order. However, to compute the first order spatial derivative for a particular pixel, the pixel values, along the direction for which the spatial derivative is taken, just before and just after the pixel of interest is used. The values are subtracted from each other and divided by the distance between each other (i.e. 40 urad). For the pixels located along the edges for which the pixel just before or just after does not exist, either just a forward or just a backwards difference is taken. To be more specific, the value of the pixel itself is subtracted from

either the value of the pixel just before or just after, whichever is available, and divided by the distance between the two (i.e. 20 urad).

For example, referring to Figure 5, Pixel Numbering Scheme, if the spatial derivative in the x direction for pixel number 29 is to be computed, the value for pixel 28 is subtracted from the value for pixel 30 and divided by 40. However, along the edge, just a forward or backward difference has to be calculated. For instance, to find the spatial derivative in the y direction for pixel number 3, the value for pixel 3 is subtracted from the value for pixel 11 and divided by 20.

APPENDIX B  
Coordinate System for 8 x 8 Input Array

The development of a coordinate system to use throughout this project was critical. The 8 x 8 input array represents an 8 x 8 FLIR array whose individual pixel FOV is 20 urad x 20 urad and system FOV is 160 urad x 160 urad. With the additional 8 rows and columns of zeroes (see Fourier Transform section), the resulting 24 x 24 array of data actually represents a coordinate system that is 480 urad x 480 urad with the (0,0) coordinate in the upper left hand corner, x increasing from left to right and y increasing from top to bottom (Figure 15).

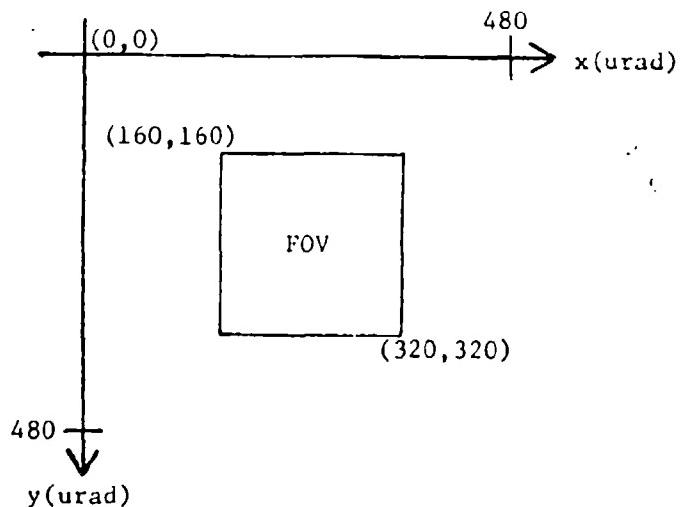


Figure 15. Coordinate System for Input Array

## APPENDIX C

### Input Patterns

Although the development of the Extended Kalman Filter for this thesis assumed no apriori knowledge concerning the exact algebraic form of the intensity pattern, three different intensity patterns were developed to provide the measurement vector  $\underline{z}(t_i)$  necessary to verify the performance of the Kalman Filter. The actual computer subroutines (Input 1, Input 2, Input 3) are described in Appendix D. However, the three input patterns are a  $40 \times 40$  constant intensity block, 3 constant height cylinder patterns, and 3 gaussian profiles. Figures 16a,b,c illustrate how the centered patterns would appear on the FLIR array. Figures 17a,b,c show the resulting noise-free values for the average intensity per pixel. The selection of these three patterns is significant, since the  $40 \times 40$  pattern provides a very pronounced difference between zero and non-zero values, while the 3 cylinder pattern once again provides a pronounced difference between zero and non-zero values but is closer to simulating a multiple-hot-spot target, while the 3 gaussian profiles provide the best representation of the multiple-hot-spot targets.

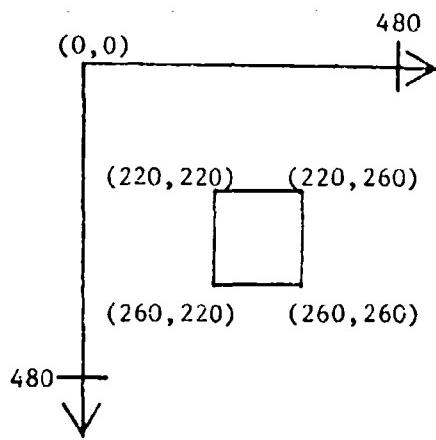


Figure 16a. 40 x 40 Constant Intensity

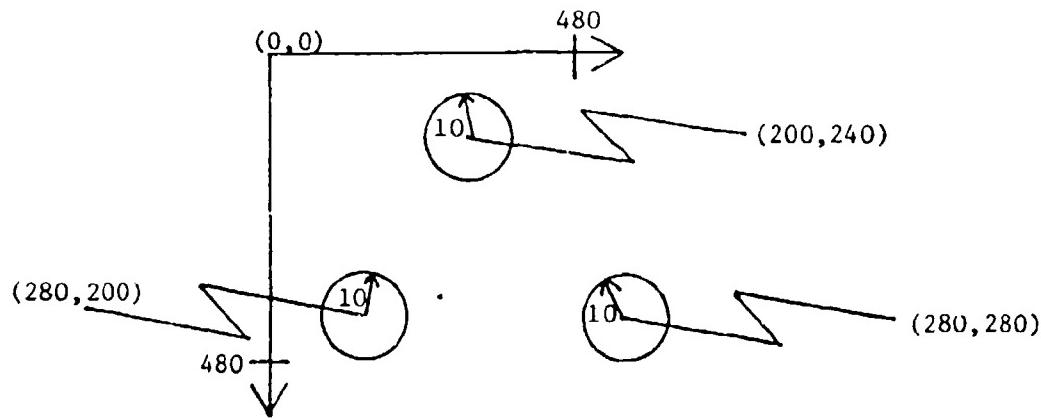


Figure 16b. 3 Constant Height Cylinders

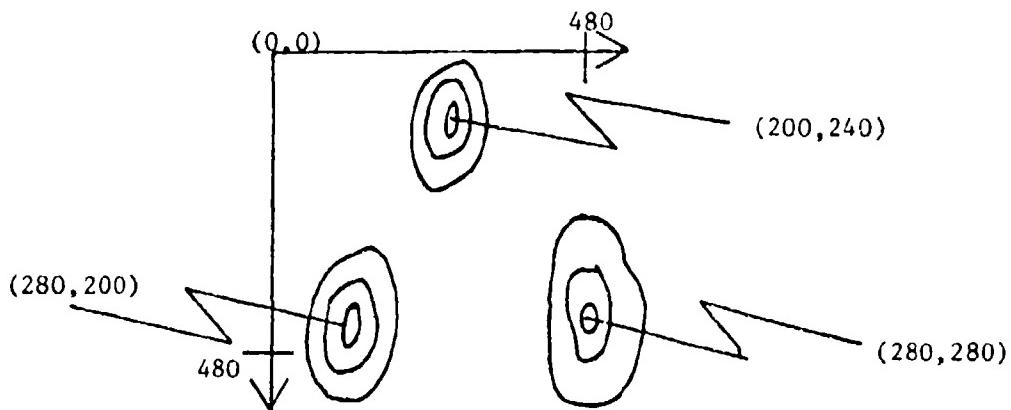


Figure 16c. 3 Gaussian Profiles

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Figure 17a. Discrete 40 x 40 Constant Intensity

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0.2	0.32	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0.12	0.2	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0.2	0.32	0	0	0.2	0.32	0	0
0	0.12	0.2	0	0	0.12	0.2	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Figure 17b. Discrete 3 Constant Height Cylinders

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0.045	0.0881	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0.0881	0.171	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0.045	0.0881	0	0	0.045	0.0881	0	0
0	0.0881	0.171	0	0	0.0881	0.171	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

$$\sigma = 1/4 \text{ Pixel}$$

Figure 17c. Discrete 3 Gaussian Profiles

## APPENDIX D

### Computer Software

This appendix contains the Fortran computer software used for this project. The computer software only reflects the use of the stationary target truth model. Since some models were used from previous thesis, there may be some duplication of their work within this software. This program was written for use on the CDC 6600 Fortran IV compiler.

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 F(1,2) = " " X(1,2) = " "  
 F(1,3) = " " Y(1,3) = " "  
 P(2,1,1) = " " Y(2,1,1) = " "  
 P(2,1,2) = " " Y(2,1,2) = " "  
 P(2,1,3) = " " Y(2,1,3) = " "  
 P(2,1,4) = " " Y(2,1,4) = " "

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14.  $\text{TF}(\text{SN}, \text{EC}, 2, 0) = \text{GO TO } 72$   
 $\text{TF}(\text{SN}, -\text{EC}, 3, 0) = \text{GO TO } 73$   
 2101 " " " " 1. IDENTIFYING NOISE TYPE",  
 1 " 4.11 ASSUME NO NOISE CONDITION IN SIMULATION!"

12.

2201 " " " " 2. DETERMINATION OF SPATIAL NOISE COEFFICIENT MATRIX  
 2202 " " " " 2.1. IDENTIFYING NOISE SOURCE, S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, S6, S7, S8

2203  $\text{PNT}(1,1) = \text{C}(1,1), \text{C}(2,1), \text{C}(3,1), \text{C}(4,1)$   
 PNT(1,2) = C(1,2), C(2,2), C(3,2), C(4,2)  
 PNT(1,3) = C(1,3), C(2,3), C(3,3), C(4,3)  
 PNT(1,4) = C(1,4), C(2,4), C(3,4), C(4,4)  
 CALL S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, S6, S7, S8  
 CALL NOISECOEF(1,2,5,6,7,8,PH1)

23.

2301 " " " " 2.2. DETERMINATION OF SPATIAL NOISE CORRELATION MATRIX  
 2302 " " " " 2.2.1. IDENTIFYING NOISE SOURCE, S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, S6, S7, S8

2303  $\text{PNT}(1,1) = \text{C}(1,1), \text{C}(2,1), \text{C}(3,1), \text{C}(4,1)$   
 PNT(1,2) = C(1,2), C(2,2), C(3,2), C(4,2)  
 PNT(1,3) = C(1,3), C(2,3), C(3,3), C(4,3)  
 PNT(1,4) = C(1,4), C(2,4), C(3,4), C(4,4)

24.

2401 " " " " 2.2.2. DETERMINATION OF SPATIAL NOISE CORRELATION MATRIX

25.  $\text{PNT}(1,1) = \text{C}(1,1), \text{C}(2,1), \text{C}(3,1), \text{C}(4,1)$

26.

2601 " " " " 2.2.3. DETERMINATION OF SPATIAL NOISE CORRELATION MATRIX

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2701 " " " " 2.2.4. DETERMINATION OF SPATIAL AND TEMPORAL NOISE CORRELATION MATRIX  
 2702 " " " " 2.2.4.1. IDENTIFYING NOISE SOURCE, S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, S6, S7, S8  
 2703  $\text{PNT}(1,1) = \text{C}(1,1), \text{C}(2,1), \text{C}(3,1), \text{C}(4,1)$   
 PNT(1,2) = C(1,2), C(2,2), C(3,2), C(4,2)  
 PNT(1,3) = C(1,3), C(2,3), C(3,3), C(4,3)  
 PNT(1,4) = C(1,4), C(2,4), C(3,4), C(4,4)

28.

2801 " " " " 2.2.4.2. DETERMINATION OF SPATIAL AND TEMPORAL NOISE CORRELATION MATRIX  
 2802  $\text{PNT}(1,1) = \text{C}(1,1), \text{C}(2,1), \text{C}(3,1), \text{C}(4,1)$   
 2803  $\text{PNT}(1,2) = \text{C}(1,2), \text{C}(2,2), \text{C}(3,2), \text{C}(4,2)$   
 2804  $\text{PNT}(1,3) = \text{C}(1,3), \text{C}(2,3), \text{C}(3,3), \text{C}(4,3)$   
 2805  $\text{PNT}(1,4) = \text{C}(1,4), \text{C}(2,4), \text{C}(3,4), \text{C}(4,4)$

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2901 " " " " 2.2.4.3. DETERMINATION OF SPATIAL AND TEMPORAL NOISE CORRELATION MATRIX  
 2902  $\text{PNT}(1,1) = \text{C}(1,1), \text{C}(2,1), \text{C}(3,1), \text{C}(4,1)$   
 2903  $\text{PNT}(1,2) = \text{C}(1,2), \text{C}(2,2), \text{C}(3,2), \text{C}(4,2)$   
 2904  $\text{PNT}(1,3) = \text{C}(1,3), \text{C}(2,3), \text{C}(3,3), \text{C}(4,3)$   
 2905  $\text{PNT}(1,4) = \text{C}(1,4), \text{C}(2,4), \text{C}(3,4), \text{C}(4,4)$

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3001 " " " " 2.2.4.4. DETERMINATION OF SPATIAL AND TEMPORAL NOISE CORRELATION MATRIX  
 3002  $\text{PNT}(1,1) = \text{C}(1,1), \text{C}(2,1), \text{C}(3,1), \text{C}(4,1)$   
 3003  $\text{PNT}(1,2) = \text{C}(1,2), \text{C}(2,2), \text{C}(3,2), \text{C}(4,2)$   
 3004  $\text{PNT}(1,3) = \text{C}(1,3), \text{C}(2,3), \text{C}(3,3), \text{C}(4,3)$   
 3005  $\text{PNT}(1,4) = \text{C}(1,4), \text{C}(2,4), \text{C}(3,4), \text{C}(4,4)$

31.

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65

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Program 95-1 7474 JPT=1 PHOMP

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```
22      PRINT 30, (ULH(K), K=1,64)
23      CALL GETLUTCH(NULM, NULH, K=1,64)
24      CALL LHF(DATAS, 0)
25      SUBROUTINE F1CH(CUE IS 200' MTH FLOOR & TRANSFORM,
26      THE E-T OF RATIO WILL BE STORED IN ETRAY)
27      INTEGER, K
28      CALL CUE(1,1,1,2, NULM, NULH, ISIG, IZSIG, WORK)
29      CALL EXECUTION OF STATE AND COORDINATE MATRIX
30      CALL F1CH(XF, FF, OUT, NG, XM, P1)
31      CALL GETLUTCH OF INPUT ARRAY
32      REAL X(1:64)
33      REAL Y(1:64)
34      PRINT 31
35      READ * X(1:64)
36      READ * Y(1:64)
37      PRINT 32
38      CALL AGC(UF1)
39      CALL AGC(UF2)
40      PRINT *, "UFC1", UF1
41      PRINT *, "UFC2", UF2
42      IF (UF1 .LT. 0.1) GO TO 10
43      IF (UF2 .LT. 0.1) GO TO 10
44      IF (UF1 .GT. 0.2) GO TO 10
45      IF (UF2 .GT. 0.2) GO TO 10
46      IF (UF1 .LT. 0.3) GO TO 10
47      IF (UF2 .LT. 0.3) GO TO 10
48      PRINT 33
49      CALL F1CH(X(1:64), Y(1:64), UF1, UF2, NM, IMAX, JMAX, CENV)
50      CALL AGC(UF1, UF2, SH, V, PHV)
51      PRINT 34
52      CALL INPUT(NULM, UF1, UF2, NM, IMAX, JMAX, CENV)
53      CALL MODE(UF1, UF2, NM, IMAX, JMAX, CENV)
54      PRINT 35
55      CALL MODE(UF1, UF2, NM, IMAX, JMAX, CENV)
56      PRINT 36
57      CALL MODE(UF1, UF2, NM, IMAX, JMAX, CENV)
58      PRINT 37
59      CALL MODE(UF1, UF2, NM, IMAX, JMAX, CENV)
60      PRINT 38
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11

INTENSITY	WAVELENGTH	WAVELENGTH	INTENSITY
MAXIMUM	4300 Å	4300 Å	MAXIMUM
100%	"	"	100%
50%	4340 Å	4340 Å	50%
25%	4370 Å	4370 Å	25%
12.5%	4400 Å	4400 Å	12.5%
6.25%	4430 Å	4430 Å	6.25%
3.125%	4460 Å	4460 Å	3.125%
1.5625%	4500 Å	4500 Å	1.5625%
0.78125%	4530 Å	4530 Å	0.78125%
0.390625%	4560 Å	4560 Å	0.390625%
0.1953125%	4600 Å	4600 Å	0.1953125%
0.09765625%	4630 Å	4630 Å	0.09765625%
0.048828125%	4660 Å	4660 Å	0.048828125%
0.0244140625%	4700 Å	4700 Å	0.0244140625%
0.01220703125%	4730 Å	4730 Å	0.01220703125%
0.006103515625%	4760 Å	4760 Å	0.006103515625%
0.0030517578125%	4800 Å	4800 Å	0.0030517578125%
0.00152587890625%	4830 Å	4830 Å	0.00152587890625%
0.000762939453125%	4860 Å	4860 Å	0.000762939453125%
0.0003814697265625%	4900 Å	4900 Å	0.0003814697265625%
0.00019073486328125%	4930 Å	4930 Å	0.00019073486328125%
0.000095367431640625%	4960 Å	4960 Å	0.000095367431640625%
0.0000476837158203125%	5000 Å	5000 Å	0.0000476837158203125%

THE SIXTY EIGHT VERSES  
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15  
THE PRACTICAL USE OF THE BIBLICAL HISTORICAL METHOD

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Figure 3 shows a typical example of the effect of a single pixel being moved from one position to another.

$y = 2x$   
 $\begin{matrix} x & 1 \\ y & 2 \end{matrix}$        $\begin{matrix} x & 3 \\ y & 6 \end{matrix}$   
 $\begin{matrix} x & 2 \\ y & 4 \end{matrix}$        $\begin{matrix} x & 4 \\ y & 8 \end{matrix}$

PRACTICAL HANDBOOK OF POLYGRAPHY

FTV 4064319 11/23/13, 21.042.27 PAGE

11/23/13, 21.42.27

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$$\begin{aligned}
 & X = ((1-1)-2) \cdot 0 + (2 \cdot 2 - 1) \cdot 1 \\
 & = -2 + 3 = 1
 \end{aligned}$$

$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$
$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$
$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$
$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$
$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$

SYNTHETIC POLY(URIDYLIC ACID)

ENT-γ FLINTS

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F.O.C.		F.O.F.		F.O.B.	
ITEM	QUANTITY	ITEM	QUANTITY	ITEM	QUANTITY
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509	1	510	1	510	1
511	1	512	1	512	1
513	1	514	1	514	1
515	1	516	1	516	1
517	1	518	1	518	1
519	1	520	1	520	1

FILE NUMBER 5411 DATE 10-10-62

STATISTICS LETTER

137	5	141	5
62	36	56	31
54	33	76	34

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1	INITIALIZE COUNTERS AVG = AVG1 + AVG2 COUNT = COUNT1 + COUNT2 TOTAL = TOTAL1 + TOTAL2	2	CHANGE COUNT TO COUNT1 CHANGE TOTAL TO TOTAL1 V1 = COUNT / TOTAL V2 = COUNT / TOTAL IF COUNT >= 0.5 THEN PRINT "AVERAGE IS", AVG END IF
3	CHANGE COUNT TO COUNT2 CHANGE TOTAL TO TOTAL2 V1 = COUNT / TOTAL V2 = COUNT / TOTAL IF COUNT >= 0.5 THEN PRINT "AVERAGE IS", AVG END IF	4	CHANGE COUNT TO COUNT1 CHANGE TOTAL TO TOTAL1 V1 = COUNT / TOTAL V2 = COUNT / TOTAL IF COUNT >= 0.5 THEN PRINT "AVERAGE IS", AVG END IF
5	CHANGE COUNT TO COUNT2 CHANGE TOTAL TO TOTAL2 V1 = COUNT / TOTAL V2 = COUNT / TOTAL IF COUNT >= 0.5 THEN PRINT "AVERAGE IS", AVG END IF	6	CHANGE COUNT TO COUNT1 CHANGE TOTAL TO TOTAL1 V1 = COUNT / TOTAL V2 = COUNT / TOTAL IF COUNT >= 0.5 THEN PRINT "AVERAGE IS", AVG END IF
7	CHANGE COUNT TO COUNT2 CHANGE TOTAL TO TOTAL2 V1 = COUNT / TOTAL V2 = COUNT / TOTAL IF COUNT >= 0.5 THEN PRINT "AVERAGE IS", AVG END IF	8	CHANGE COUNT TO COUNT1 CHANGE TOTAL TO TOTAL1 V1 = COUNT / TOTAL V2 = COUNT / TOTAL IF COUNT >= 0.5 THEN PRINT "AVERAGE IS", AVG END IF
9	CHANGE COUNT TO COUNT2 CHANGE TOTAL TO TOTAL2 V1 = COUNT / TOTAL V2 = COUNT / TOTAL IF COUNT >= 0.5 THEN PRINT "AVERAGE IS", AVG END IF	10	CHANGE COUNT TO COUNT1 CHANGE TOTAL TO TOTAL1 V1 = COUNT / TOTAL V2 = COUNT / TOTAL IF COUNT >= 0.5 THEN PRINT "AVERAGE IS", AVG END IF

SYNTHETIC POLY(1)

BRIEFING	SIN	TYPE	OPERATION			F.O.	F.O.
			ATT	ALERT	F.O.		
207 CVC	2-51	2-51					
208 X	2-51	2-51					
209 10112	2-51	2-51					
210 1	2-51	2-51					
211 3	2-51	2-51					
212 V2	2-51	2-51					
213 1	2-51	2-51					
214 2	2-51	2-51					
215 7	2-51	2-51					
216 1	2-51	2-51					
217 4	2-51	2-51					
218 10114	2-51	2-51					
219 10115	2-51	2-51					
220 10116	2-51	2-51					
221 10117	2-51	2-51					
222 10118	2-51	2-51					
223 10119	2-51	2-51					
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418 10114	2-51	2-51					
419 10115	2-51	2-51					

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STATISTICS VI LECTURE

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DATA INPUTS 7470 DATA PUNCH  
DATA,ST01,Y11(1),Y11(2),S1(12),T1(X,S1,X,CNY)

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STATISTICS  
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THE INFLUENCE OF VARIOUS

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SYNTHETIC POLY(1,4-PHENYLENE TEREPHTHALATE)

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THE JOURNAL OF

ENTRY POINTS

STATISTICS	220GFM L200W	230	19
MEAN	1.00	1.00	1.00
STDEV	0.00	0.00	0.00
SUM	1.00	1.00	1.00
MIN	0.00	0.00	0.00
MAX	1.00	1.00	1.00
SD	0.00	0.00	0.00
SEY	0.00	0.00	0.00
SEV	0.00	0.00	0.00
REAL	1.00	1.00	1.00
REAL	1.00	1.00	1.00
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故人不以爲子也。故曰：「子」者，子孫也。

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ENTOMOLOGIA

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3. *Scutellaria* *canadensis* *L.* *Scutellaria* *canadensis* *L.*

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LITERATURE

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PREDICTION OF THE DYNAMIC BEHAVIOR OF POLY(1,3-BUTADIENE) 17

NOTES

PASTORAL LITERATURE

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VARIABLES	SN	TYPE	LOCATION	DATA
227	1	INTEGER	223	1A
228	18	INTEGER	225	1C
229	125	INTEGER	231	1
221	-	REAL	221	1
222	5	REAL	231	4E-4
223	-	REAL	231	4E-4
224	-	REAL	231	4E-4
225	-	REAL	231	4E-4

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$F(Y_2) = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \exp(-\frac{Y_2}{2})$   
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THE JOURNAL OF CLIMATE

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FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTS

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THE JOURNAL OF CLIMATE VOL. 17, NO. 10, OCTOBER 2004

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P90np Optimal Shading in the Human Visual System

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1. /25/3. 21.62.27 PAGE 2

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ENTRY POINTS

VARIABLES	DATA:	SN	TYPE:	COLLOCATION	F.O.
355	=XY	2161	REAL	INT-GE	254
371	=X71	2741	REAL	INT-GE	255
374	=Z4.	374.	REAL	INT-GE	256
377	=X1	37AL	REAL	INT-GE	257
376	=Y	37AN	REAL	INT-GE	258
352	=YY2	37F.	REAL	INT-GE	259
354	=Y1	37A1	REAL	INT-GE	260
354	=1	37T	REAL	INT-GE	261
354	=1	637	REAL	INT-GE	262
354	=1	47-63	REAL	INT-GE	263
371	J.	47-63	REAL	INT-GE	264
373	J/2	47-63	REAL	INT-GE	265
376	J1	47-63	REAL	INT-GE	266
371	J51	47-63	REAL	INT-GE	267

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1. /25/35 21.02.27

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PAGE 2

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ST 100 STATION ROUTE CONSOLIDATION STATEMENT

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STAFFING LEVELS	PERIOD	DATE	TIME	ACTIVITY	LOCATION	NOTES
87	10:00 AM - 12:00 PM	11/20/65	10:00 AM	ENTRY POINTS	MAIN ENTRANCE	
12	10:00 AM - 12:00 PM	11/20/65	10:00 AM	STAFFING LEVELS	MAIN ENTRANCE	
0	10:00 AM - 12:00 PM	11/20/65	10:00 AM	PROBLEMS NOT INDEXED	MAIN ENTRANCE	
25	10:00 AM - 12:00 PM	11/20/65	10:00 AM	INDEX	MAIN ENTRANCE	
17	10:00 AM - 12:00 PM	11/20/65	10:00 AM	INDEX	MAIN ENTRANCE	
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SUPERVISOR: FRED T. CANTRELL, 100-15151-55, R-FOXX, 405-K  
FBI - TAMPA - 111 CONTACT LINE, PARK 411-EK 431-1400/3-26

14 - 2001: A TUTORIAL FOR THE USE OF CRITICAL FUNCTION

THE EQUATION FOR THE FLOWING POINT OF A BINARY ALLOY IS HIGH SHORTER THAN THE "SOLID" BOUNDARY BY THE FOLLOWING FORMULA. 
$$T_f = T_s - \frac{K}{C} \ln \left( \frac{C_1}{C_2} \right)$$
 WHERE  $T_f$  = FLOWING POINT,  $T_s$  = SOLID POINT,  $K$  = 2.303,  $C_1$  = CONCENTRATION OF THE FIRST ELEMENT IN THE BINARY ALLOY,  $C_2$  = CONCENTRATION OF THE SECOND ELEMENT. THE FLOWING POINT OF A BINARY ALLOY IS DETERMINED BY THE EQUATION  $T_f = T_s + \frac{K}{C} \ln \left( \frac{C_2}{C_1} \right)$ . THE FLOWING POINT OF A BINARY ALLOY IS DETERMINED BY THE EQUATION  $T_f = T_s + \frac{K}{C} \ln \left( \frac{C_2}{C_1} \right)$ .

THE JOURNAL OF CLIMATE VOL. 17, NO. 10, OCTOBER 2004

3. COMPUTABILITY AT LEAST, THE INPUT DATA AND THE TRANSFORM OUTPUT FFT(1,2)

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FFT(7,8)

FFT(9,10)

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FFT(141,142)

FFT(143,144)

FFT(145,146)

4. COMPUTATION OF FORWARD TRANSFORM OF A REAL ARRAY OF COMPLEX DATA ELEMENTS IN FORWARD TRANSFORM OF A COMPLEX VALUE.

5. COMPUTATION OF FORWARD TRANSFORM OF A REAL ARRAY OF COMPLEX DATA ELEMENTS IN FORWARD TRANSFORM OF A COMPLEX VALUE.

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36. COMPUTATION OF FORWARD TRANSFORM OF A REAL ARRAY OF COMPLEX DATA ELEMENTS IN FORWARD TRANSFORM OF A COMPLEX VALUE.



Diagram (a) shows a transducer with two parallel wires of length  $L$ , separated by a distance  $d$ . The wires are connected in series. A coordinate system is shown with the  $x$ -axis horizontal and the  $y$ -axis vertical.

Diagram (b) shows a transducer with two parallel wires of length  $L$ , separated by a distance  $d$ . The wires are connected in parallel. A coordinate system is shown with the  $x$ -axis horizontal and the  $y$ -axis vertical.



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657 A(I,J)=0.1\*P1+I\*(P2  
658 A(I,J)=0.1\*P1+I\*(P2  
659 B(I,J)=0.1\*P1+I\*(P2  
660 R(I,J+2)=-(1.0)\*I\*HPI  
661 J=J+2  
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VITA

James Singletary Jr. was born on November 4, 1955 in Lackawanna, New York. He graduated from Lackawanna Senior High School in June 1973 and entered the United States Air Force Academy that same month. In June of 1977, he graduated from the Air Force Academy with a Bachelor of Science degree in Electrical Engineering and a commission in the United States Air Force. From July 1977 to June 1979, he served as a telemetry developmental engineer with the 4950th Test Wing at Wright-Patterson Air Force Base, Ohio. In June 1979, First Lieutenant James Singletary Jr. was assigned to the Air Force Institute of Technology to pursue a Master's of Science Degree in Electrical Engineering (Electro-Optics). As a result of graduate work done at night during his assignment with the Test Wing, he earned a Master's of Science Degree in Management Science in April 1980 from the University of Dayton. Lt. Singletary is also a member of the Eta Kappa Nu Society.

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performance throughout the pattern recognition process. However, the major obstacle that surfaced during the execution of this project was a filter divergence problem. It has been proposed that this problem can be solved by implementing the Fourier transform derivative property instead of the forward-backward difference method to compute the spatial derivative of the non-linear h function.

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